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ABSTRACT

The following papers were among those presented at the symposium hosted by Brigham Young University: (1) "Situational Leadership Styles of Four Recreation and Sport Supervisors Using a Time Series Design" (Maurice Phipps, and others; (2) "Backpacking Sitting Down: Reminiscences from the Great Siberian Railroad" (Daniel L. Dustin); (3) "The Relationship of Family Recreational Patterns Marital Quality" (Dianne S. Smith); (4) "Do You Have 'The Right Stuff' to Be an Entrepreneur" (John Crossley, Taylor Ellis); (5) "National Standards in the Pricing of Public Parks and Recreational Services" (Craig W. Kelsey); (6) "State Parks and Recreation Areas: The Development of Some Comparative Measures" (Craig W. Kelsey); (7) "Whitewater Use of the Colorado River in Grand Canyon National Park" (Lawrence A. Beck); (8) "Project I.B.I.M. I Believe in Me" (Karen Floyd-Radmall, Sandra Negley); (9) "The Need for Trained Coaches in Recreational Sports Programs" (Hal Potter); (10) "Motivational Differences for Pleasure Travel Across the Lifespan" (Michael A. Schuett, and others); (11) "You Can't Ask That! Illegal and inappropriate Questions for Pre-Employment Interviews" (Janna S. Rankin); "Management Matters--New Age Motivation Strategies to Enhance Employee Potential" (Andrea Philips); and (13) "A Look at a Program to Increase Writing competencies and Interpretation of Research" (Raymond A. Moore). (JD)

# Preface

It is our pleasure to present the proceedings from the 1989 Intermountain Leisure Symposium (ILS). Thirty-six papers were presented in this tenth annual Symposium, addressing a broad range of current trends, critical issues, and emerging perspectives. Thirteen of the presenters have chosen to submit papers for inclusion in this document.

Sponsorship of the ILS is shared by the Brigham Young University, University of Utah, Utah State University, Weber State College, the Utah Recreation and Park Association, and the Utah Therapeutic Recreation Association. The 1989 Symposium was hosted by the Brigham Young University under the directorship of Dr. Gary K. Palmer. The 1989 Heaton Awards presented under the Chairmanship of Mr. John Hansen. Many contributions to the Symposium have been made by our research staff: LuDene Moon, Lisa Barkdull, and Barbara Grant, to which we express many thanks. We are also appreciative of the contributions made by many others.

Editor: Dr. Gary K. Palmer

Co-Editor: Scott B. Giles, Graduate Assistant

Heaton Awards Chairman: Mr. John Hansen

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## Situational Leadership Styles of Four Recreation and Sport Supervisors Using a Time Series Design.

Maurice Phipps, Carlton Yoshioka & Lynn M. Jamieson[1]

ABSTRACT: Situational Leadership is an accepted management technique in the business world and in Sports Administration. The theory is well accepted and corresponds to group development theory, but often the theory is not applied if all the styles are not practiced. Often leaders remain too leader-centered in their decision-making; this can motivate mature groups.

This study gave some sport professionals an opportunity to practice the different Situational Leadership styles by using a journal technique. The researchers then tracked and measured the use of the styles.

The findings did verify that priority group-centered decisions could be increased and correspondingly leaders-centered decisions decreased to a degree that was appropriate to the group. The tracking method could be used as a teaching tool to correct inappropriate use of leader-centered styles.

KEYWORDS: Leader styles, Situational Leadership , group development, supervisors, dominant, and alternate leader styles.

AUTHORS: See Title Sheet.

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Carlton Yoshioka is a faculty member of the Leisure Studies Department at Arizona State University. He received a doctorate at the University of Oregon. His area of specialty includes administration applied to community and commercial recreation settings.

Lynn Jamieson is a faculty member at California Polytechnic State University at San Luis Obispo. She received a doctorate at Indiana University. Her area of specialty includes community and commercial recreation.

Situational Leadership Styles of Four Recreation and Sport Supervisors Using a Time Series Design.

## INTRODUCTION

The importance of leadership is recognized and well established in the business sector (Peters and Austin, 1985; Peters, 1988), and is also valued in sport management (Zeigler, 1987, Chelladurai, 1985; Chelladurai; 1985; Chelladurai and Carron, 1979). Zeigler (1987) presented that one of the recommendations needed to meet the present challenge facing sport management was understanding and utilizing some form of situational leadership. Relatedly, Skalko and Ellard (1987) proposed the increased use of Situational Leadership by recreation and leisure professionals. Such a practice would naturally have application to sport management settings that involve group leadership techniques such as recreational sports, club sports, and selected special events.

Realizing the importance of leadership to sport management, the purpose of this study was to determine if leadership styles, in particular group-centered leadership styles, were appropriate techniques in sport and physical education. Often, in a sport management setting, the extensive nature of rules and governance in a game situation precludes exercising flexible leadership styles. Further, the human factor in sport management (Thompson and Montgomery, 1988) is described as follows: "One of the most important functions of a manager is to create an environment in which individuals can work together as a group to accomplish a common goal; however, while this environment may be ideal, game structure may prevent ideal use of the most effective leadership styles." Different theories of leadership exist, including those of Vroom and Yetton, Fiedler, and Tannenbaum and Schmidt (Stark 1980), but Situational Leadership was used in this study because it is a life cycle theory and corresponds to group development theory such as Jones' model of group development (1973).

## THE PROBLEM

The problem for leaders is that infrequent use of leader styles that create feelings of uncertainty (Hersey and Blanchard 1982). Perhaps the traditional view of leadership intimating that leaders must show control has resulted in leaders sometimes being reluctant to use group-centered styles, in particular, the delegating of decision-making. The importance of delegation not only contributes to a smooth-functioning organization but also gives subordinates an opportunity to achieve self-confidence (Thompson and Montgomery 1988). At times, such decisions were made because it appears to be expedient as the leader relates to accomplishing a specific task which then overrides most relationship behaviors. Unfortunately, too much control and

directive behavior with competent followers can be demotivating for followers (Zeigler, 1987); this can then dissipate energy int he group away from the task. A better solution would be to develop the group through the stages of group development to perform as a team in the work setting. This motivating for the group and eventually more efficient in the use of energy allocated to the task. According to Miller and Brink (1977), such development is a constant process of change and will occur in an environment "which people feel it is safe to explore and are encouraged to research in the process (p.5). A theory that makes this possible and is appropriate to sport management is Situational Leadership .

Situational Leadership developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) was based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and 'readiness' of followers. Follower readiness is the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior, and is the key to judgement made by the leader in choosing one of the four Situational Leadership Styles (see Fig. 1).

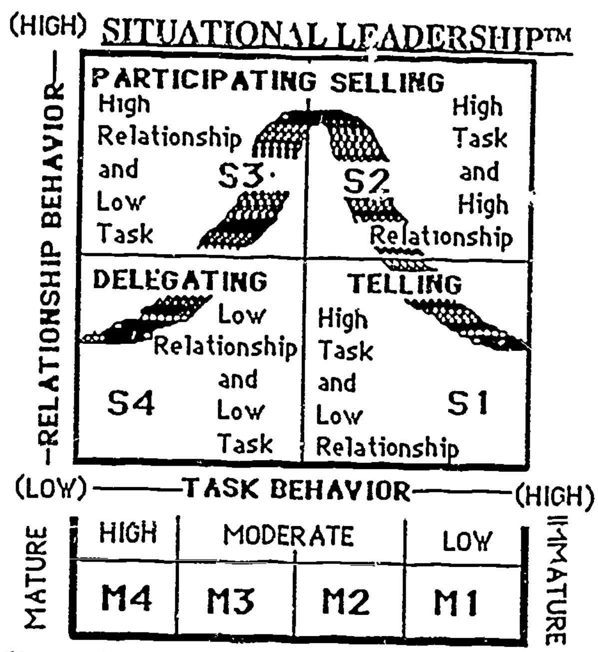



Figure 1
Situational Leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982)

Group Dynamics studies by Cartwright and Zander, the Ohio State University leadership studies, and Bl:'ke and Mouton's Managerial Grid, dispelled the idea that task and relationship were either/or leadership styles, instead styles tend to vary within leaders (Hersey and Blanchard 1984). Hersey and Blanchard

maintained that research of the past several decades has supported the contention that there is no "best" style of leadership, and that any of the four basic styles shown in Fig. 1 may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. The diagram illustrated the four styles, the curve represents the path along which leader behavior moves as the followers' maturity (readiness) changes. The styles vary in amounts of task/relationship behavior which are detailed in each quadrant. Besides the interplay of task and relationship behavior, Situational Leadership theory is based on the interaction of this interplay and the "maturity level" that the followers exhibit in attempting to accomplish a specific task.

Maturity level is the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. Having gauged the maturity level, the leader then decides which leadership style to use; telling, selling, participating, or delegating; the style that is best needed to influence the group or individual. The management theory and technique is designed to obtain maximum motivation. The bell-shaped curve (see Fig.1) in the style-of-the leader portion of the model means that as the maturity level of one's followers develops, the appropriate style of leadership moves accordingly along the curvilinear function.

When looking at group development theory, for example Jones' model (1973) (see Figs. 2 and 3), it can be seen that the model corresponds to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership model.

| Stage | Personal Relations | Task Functions |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Dependency | Orientation |
| 2 | Conflict | Organization |
| 3 | Cohesion | Data-flow |
| 4 | Interdependence | Problem-solving |

**Jones' model of group development**

Figure 2.
Jones' Model of Group Development
(1973)

Using the two models in conjunction may create understanding, allowing better judgement in selecting an appropriate style of leadership and decision making in relation to the group. Fig 3 illustrates both of the models.

| | |
|---|---|
| 3<br>PARTICIPATING | 2<br>SELLING |
| DELEGATING<br>4 | TELLING<br>1 |

**SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP™**

| | |
|---|---|
| 3<br>COHESION<br>(Data-flow) | 2<br>CONFLICT<br>(Organization) |
| INTER-<br>DEPENDENCE<br>(Problem-<br>Solving)<br>4 | DEPENDENCY<br>(Orientation)<br>1 |

**GROUP DEVELOPMENT**

**Figure 3**
Situational Leadership and
Jones' Model of Group Development

Both models suggest that as the followers develop, the personal relationships and task functions change. Over time then as the group/followers become more able to do the task, assuming that they are willing, then the leadership should become more group-centered. In the Situational Leadership model, this would mean that more participating and delegating styles would be used to empower followers.

Ability and willingness to change as a leader is an important issue according to Hersey and Blanchard, but just as important is the practice in changing (Hersey and Blanchard 1982)

> When people learn to use the leadership style that previously was not even considered a secondary style, these compensating styles often become their most effective styles. While these styles may never become comfortable, they become the most effective, in many cases, because they've been learned. Therefore, such leaders know more about these styles because they have practiced them consciously. People often use their comfortable or primary leadership styles by "the seat of their pants." (p. 235).

Using the different leader styles appropriately is the key issue in becoming more of an effective supervisor. Perhaps attending a seminar or workshop on the theory is not enough and some other technique is necessary to enable practice in the non-dominant styles. With specific practice in these other styles a change in behavior is more likely to occur and benefit the interaction between leaders and followers. To encourage the subjects in this study to practice different styles, a journal of decision-making was kept for 20 consecutive working days. This focused the subject's attention to other leadership styles and also allowed data to be collected regarding priority decisions. Recent social science researchers (Csikszentmihaly et al. 1977) have effectively utilized journals as a part of the attempt to undertake qualitative investigations.

## METHODOLOGY

### Subjects

The subjects consisted of four physical education and sport professionals, all of whom were supervisors. They consisted of a supervisor from each of the followings:

1. A YMCA
2. A Community Parks and Recreation Department
3. A Department of Physical Education and Leisure Studies
4. A High School Physical Education Department

The fourth subject, the physical education supervisor had no knowledge of Situational Leadership and acted as a control subject. These professionals were all supervisors and the study entailed decision-making in relation to leader styles and their supervisees. Their followers then were teachers, instructors, clerical assistants, and volunteer helpers (leadership, support and instruction staff). Only four subjects were used as there was in depth study of each person, using a single-case Quasi-Experimental Design, a time series design with multiple baseline (Campbell and Stanley 1963). The systematic replication in this qualitative

study is a search for exceptions. Where no exceptions are found as replications proceed, then wider generality of findings is established and formulation of concepts and their interrelationships for development of substantive theory occurs (Glasser and Strauss 1965). Hersen and Barlow (1984) emphasized the point stating that in terms of external validity, or generality of findings, a series of single case designs with similar clients in which the original experiment is directly replicated three or four times can far surpass the experimental group and no treatment group designs.

## Method

The subjects completed the LEAD-Self Inventory, and the followers the LEAD-Other as pre and post-test instruments. Several empirical validity studies have been conducted on the LEAD-Self and it is deemed a valid and reliable instrument (Gree 1980). The LEAD-Self measures self-perceptions of leader decisions in hypothetical situations. The LEAD-Other measures followers' perceptions by using the same questions, asking the respondents to say what they thought the leader would do in those situations. These instruments measure style, range, adaptability, and effectiveness.

All four of the subjects kept a structured journal of decision-making as used in the study by Phipps (1986). The four most important situations as seen by the leader each day were chosen each working day for 20 days. The leader decisions on these situations were recorded in relation to supervisees. The format for each decision entry was structured as follows:

**A. Describe the Situation.**
**B. What did you do as the leader?**
**C. Why did you do this?**
**D. How did you implement this decision?**
**E. Was this decision task (directive Behavior), or relationship (supportive behavior) or both?**

The high school physical education supervisor kept the journal as explained above and started one week later than the other subjects which was one week after the mid-term break. The other three subjects started concurrently, one week after the final semester mid-term break, during March as two of the subjects were based in universities, and municipal recreation departments also were affected to some extent by school time tables. The treatment, the refresher session on Situational Leadership , including the scoring and an explanation of the LEAD-Self results, was given at different times to each subject (except subject 4) to create multiple base lines. Subject 1 received the treatment on the 4th day, subject 2 on the 9th day, subject 3 ont he 14th day. Subjects were selected randomly for these days. After the refresher

session, each subject reviewed all the decisions made under section 'D' (How did you implement this decision?) in the journal. The decisions were labeled according to the Situational Leadership style that had been used, *telling, selling, participating,* or *delegating*. They continued to label decisions as to the style each day.

This enabled data to be collected by priority of style throughout the 20 days. *Telling* and *selling* were later combined as leader-centered decisions and *participating* and *delegating* were combined as group-centered styles (Hersey and Blanchard 1984). It was expected that there would be less leader-centered and subsequently more group-centered decision-making after the treatment as the subjects would hopefully practice their non-dominant styles and use more participating and delegating where appropriate. This would be only appropriate if the followers had the corresponding maturity. The following hypothesis was generated to test this theory.

Hypothesis:

HI
Following treatment, the number of "leader-centered" decisions made per day will decrease.

HO
Following treatment, the number of "leader-centered" decisions made per day will **not** decrease.

A t-test was used to establish if there was a significant difference between pre and post treatment scores in regard to leader-centered decisions. The decisions were tabulated on charts creating a time series design, an AB design with multiple baseline. A multiple baseline strengthens an A-B design; treatment interventions for targeted behavior can be conceptualized as separate A-B designs with the A phase further extended until the treatment is finally applied (Hersen and Barlow 1984).

Decision scores were converted to percentages to enable comparison of dominant and supporting styles. Effectiveness scores from the LEAD-Other pre and post tests were measured to allow comparison of followers' perceptions of changes in leader styles of the supervisors.

**Results**

Looking at the charts in Fig. 5 and table 1 it can be seen that subjects 2 and 3 both decreased their leader-centered decisions per day, subject 1 only very slightly. Subject 2's decrease was substantial and the most dramatic change on the charts in relation to this style. Fig. 6 shows that subject 4 maintained a higher use of leader-centered decision-making. Results of the

t-test comparing pre and post treatment leader-centered decisions can be seen in Table 1.

The Hypothesis (null) was rejected at <.01 level of significance for subject 2.

The Hypothesis (null) was accepted for subject 1 and 3. Subject 1's followers' gains on the LEAD-Other however were significant (see table 3).

Looking at Table 2 which shows the totals of the decisions converted to percentages, it can be seen that dominant styles did not prevail throughout the 20 days, alternate styles were also used. It would be expected that subjects' dominant styles would be strongly used if they were either participating or delegating as these were the expected styles to be used in the advanced stages of the life-cycle of the groups (at this time of year in the university and school based groups the advanced stage of the life-cycle was expected). Subject 1's considerable lack of selling style was interesting and could have been attributed to the treatment. The control, subject 4, used considerably more telling style than the treatment groups and as a supervisor of teachers, this was possibly inappropriate.

Although subject 1 did not increase group-centered decisions, results from the LEAD-Other which measured follower perceptions showed an increase on the post-tests [(p<.01) see table 3]. This suggests that the correct leadership styles were being used for the maturity (readiness) of the group.

Fig. 5

Group-centered/Leader-centered Decision-making for subjects 1, 2, and 3

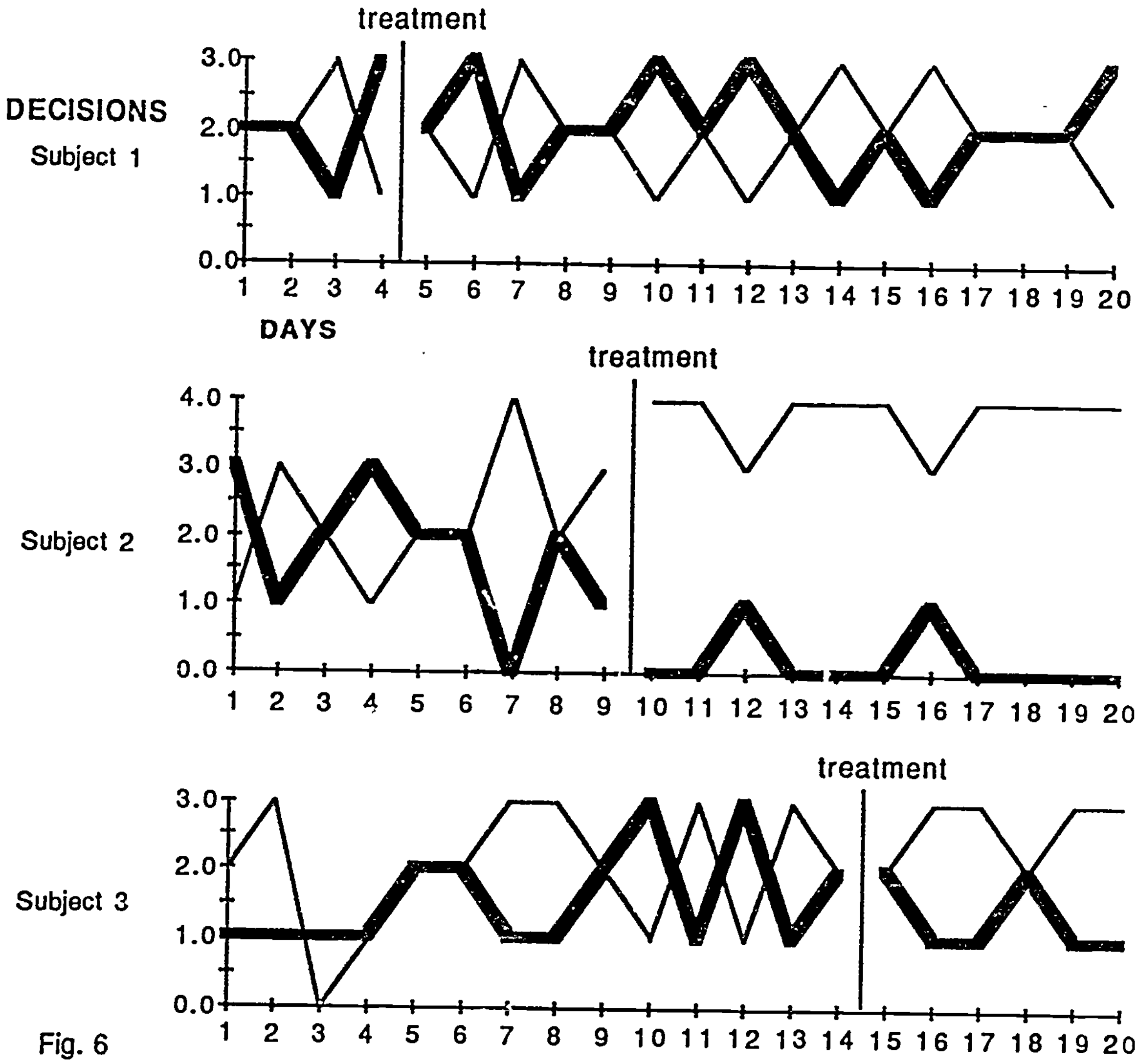
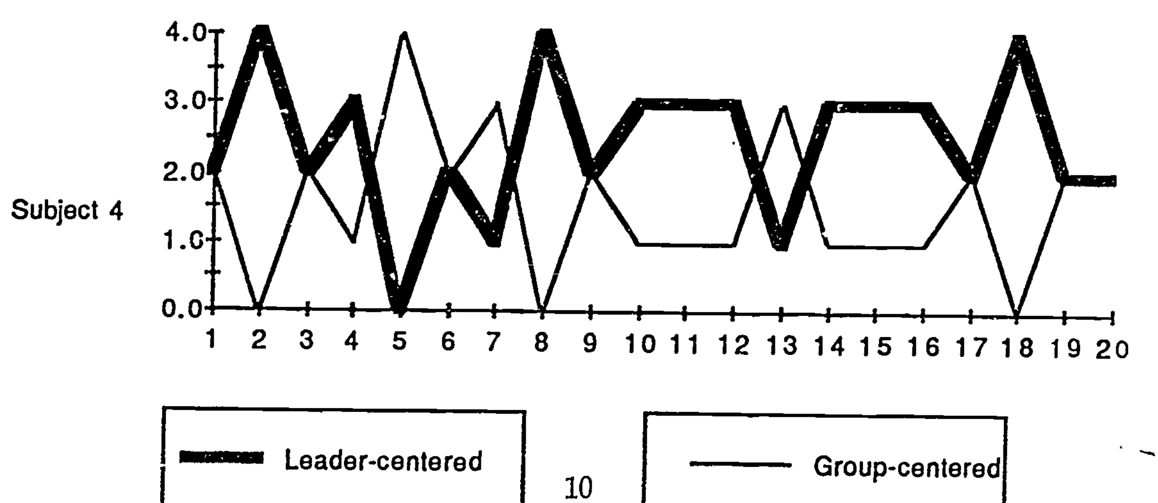



Fig. 6

Control Subject's Group-centered/leader-centered Decision-making



## TABLE 1

### Leader-centered Decisions

| | Subject 1 | | Subject 2 | | Subject 3 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Treatment | | Treatment | | Treatment | |
| | Pre | Post | Pre | Post | Prc | Post |
| Leader-centered decisions | 8.0 | 33 | 16 | 2 | 22 | 8 |
| Days | 4.0 | 16 | 9 | 11 | 14 | 6 |
| Means | 2 | 2.06 | 1.77 | .181 | 1.57 | 1.33 |
| SD | .82 | .68 | .97 | .40 | .75 | .51 |
| Degrees of freedom | 18 | | 18 | | 18 | |
| | ($p = .875$) | | ($p < .001$) | | ($p = .493$) | |

## TABLE 2.

### Total Decision Scores Converted to Percentages

| | Tell | Sell | Part | Del | LC[a] | GC[b] | Task | Relationship[c] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Subject 1. | .39 | .09* | .35 | .18 | .48 | .53 | .63 | .45 |
| Subject 2. | .18 | .04 | .33* | .46 | .21 | .79 | .54 | .64 |
| Subject 3. | .18 | .22* | .30 | .30 | .40 | .60 | .52 | .51 |
| Subject 4. (control) | .55 | .06* | .26* | .13 | .61 | .39 | .79 | .61 |

* signifies dominant style as measured on the pre-test (LEAD-Self)

[a] LC= Leader-centered

[b] GC= Group-centered

[c] Task and Relationship results combine to more than 100% as some decisions were labelled *both* task and relationship.

## TABLE 3.

### LEAD-Other Effectiveness Mean Scores (Follower Perceptions) (The range of scores on the Lead Tests range from a possible +24 or -24)

| | Pre-test | Post-test | Gains |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject 1. | 7.7 | 12 | 4.3 ($p < .01$) |
| Subject 2. | 8.8 | 10 | 1.2 ($p = .571$) |
| Subject 3. | 11.0 | 11 | 0 ($p = 1.00$) |
| Subject 4. (control) | 7.8 | 10.6 | 2.8 ($p = .241$) |

Discussion

Four two of the subjects, the treatment and the decision-making journal using Situational Leadership tabulations seems to have increased the use of group-centered decision-making; subject 2 only was statistically significant (see table 1 and Fig. 5). Subject 1 did not increase as expected but maintained an equal balance of group-centered and leader-centered decisions throughout the 20 days. It was expected at this time of the year (just over half-way through the second semester, that the subjects' groups would be at least in the data flow/cohesive function of Jones' group development and thus well on in the life-cycle of the Situational Leadership theory. Less than half the decisions per day were expected to be leader-centered then, unless there were special circumstances. On reading the journals, subject 1's followers did appear to be more in the middle of the life cycle, being less mature than groups 2 and 3. The followers for this group scored the leader higher on the post-test suggesting that the leader was in cinque with the group. The greatest difference would have been expected for subject 2 with a group of university instructors who would be expected to have a higher degree of readiness. This would allow subject 2 to participate and delegate on priority decisions more often.

The control subject did use more leader-centered decisions as anticipated (see table 2), in particular *telling,* although this subject did not score any *telling* decisions on the LEAD-Self pre and post tests. The use of the journal did affect the control subject to some degree. When questioned, it was felt that it encouraged more careful analysis and objectivity. There was however, an increase in follower perceptions of leader effectiveness on the LEAD-Other for this subject (see table 3). The addition of the treatment for the other subjects allowed a framework within which to formulate the decisions. Even though all the treatment subjects had some prior knowledge of Situational Leadership , improvements in the use of the different styles were still necessary as compared to the ideal suggested by the LEAD-Self (from pre-test scores).

Conclusion

The research results did verify to some extent that leader-centered decision-making could be decreased and subsequently group-centered decisions could be increased with the use of Situational Leadership , to a degree that was appropriate to the group. Results that were obtained could be viewed on charts by the researcher. If the subjects actually completed the charts as they completed the decisions, there could be even more dramatic changes in decision making as subjects hopefully would try and use the Situational Leadership theory more accurately. These would need to be monitored with some other instrument measuring the groups' perceptions. Even more dramatic changes would be expected with

subjects having no prior knowledge of Situational Leadership , who score low on the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. The treatment subjects in this study scored fairly high on the LEAD-Self pre-test (X=16, the 89%ile of normative scores based on information from the *LEAD-Self Manual* (Green 1980). The control subject scored 9 on the pre-test which is the 46%ile (and had no prior knowledge of Situational Leadership ).

This method can be used as a teaching tool to correct the inappropriate use of leader-centered styles (*telling* and *selling*), to illustrate changes in the use of all the styles, and to monitor the use of dominant styles. Whether followers are professionals, technical assistants, volunteers or any other is inconsequential as long as the maturity (readiness) of followers is used as the guide to the style that the leader uses. Using the charts would take the leadership education a stage further than just describing the theory by enabling practice in the use of the different styles actually in the work place. This can be an effective antidote to the unconscious reversal into original well practiced dominant styles which can easily happen. Keeping a journal on priority decisions forces a more reasoned approach to decision-making and combining this with a theoretical model enables better judgments to be made. Tracing the pattern of styles over time illustrates the overuse or under use of a particular style. This can be analyzed to see if the use was appropriate. The use of a journal and charts then, combines the experiential and theoretical constructs of leadership. More effective learning and subsequent change could ensue by using these organized and visual feedback techniques. Hersey and Blanchard as mentioned earlier (1982) suggest that without education in leadership styles "People often use their comfortable style or primary leadership styles by the seat of their pants". Using the theory experientially in the work place using a structured journal such as the one used in this study with the addition of the subject's plotting of the charts could then assist leaders to empower followers appropriately creating more motivating environments.

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**BACKPACKING SITTING DOWN: REMINISCENCES FROM THE GREAT SIBERIAN RAILROAD**

**Daniel L. Dustin**[1]

ABSTRACT. This paper recounts my impressions from a 5,260 mile journey across the Soviet Union ont he Great Siberian Railroad in the spring of 1989. On the surface it is a travelogue. But upon deeper examination it is a Westerner's reaction to the East, a response to that which we are not.

The scene is right out of "Raiders of the Lost Ark." I am at Moscow's Yaroslavl Train Station amidst a swarm of humanity that is about to depart on the "Rossia," the Great Siberian Railroad, for the Soviet Far East. Most of these people have been on a pilgrimage to their nation's capitol, the center of Soviet cultural and political life. Now, loaded down with baggage, souvenirs and food for the long journey home, they buzz amongst themselves in various languages and dialects, embrace the loved ones they are leaving behind, and scurry on board.

I'm traveling "soft" class, two persons to a compartment. The thing about traveling alone on a train in the U.S.S.R. is that you never know who you're going to end up with. On a trip of this magnitude, 5,260 miles across two continents over seven long days and nights, one's traveling companion is no small concern.

Meet mine -- Victor Chaschookhin, an elderly gentleman from Pskof, a city near the Estonian Republic of the Soviet Union. Victor is on his way to Vladivostok to visit his son who is in the navy. Victor is friendly enough. he's just not a talker. That's okay by me. I'll get a lot of thinking and writing done.

The Great Siberian Railroad is "the experience of a lifetime," according to one book I read. From Moscow to Khabarovsk through seven time zones, it is the equivalent of going from New York to Los Angeles and back again. There are fifty stops along the way lasting from two to eighteen minutes each. You jump out and run yourself up and down the platform the way you'd run your family dog on a long car trip back home, buy pastry ("pirozhnoe") if there's

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time, and then scamper back on board because the train just leaves -- no warning, no whistle, nothing. If the conductor on your car doesn't look out for you (in my case a woman named Ludmila), and you are absent-minded, you could be in for trouble. Ludmila had to scold me several times.

How best to describe the Great Siberian Railroad? It is like backpacking sitting down. It's awkward at first and uncomfortable. You get aches and pains in your backside, the food is marginal, and you toss and turn at night in the narrow berth which is like a sleeping bag that moves. (The first night out I dreamt I was in an earthquake. it made the one at Universal Studios pale in comparison.) In the morning you splash water on your face, get the sleepers out of your eyes, and give thanks one more time that Victor didn't snore. In a day or two you find the groove. You begin to appreciate the little things like Ludmila's glasses of hot tea with sugar, and the rhythmic rocking motion of the train.

Siberia overwhelms you with its size. From the Ural Mountains east of Moscow, which separate Europe from Asia as well as European Russian from Siberia, to the city of Irkutsk by Lake Baikal, there is nothing but a flat plain. This fact of geography explains the vulnerability of Russia, and more recently the Soviet Union, to attack. It has been an irresistible target for centuries. As the Germans found out in World War II, however, the immensity of this plain also makes it extremely difficult to sustain any such attack. Nonetheless, there is a perceptible defensiveness in the Soviet people's attitudes toward outsiders. History has taught them to be suspicious.

For a change of pace you can visit the "stolovaya." (Dining car). In my case, it means wading my way back through three passenger cars filled with pajama clad people who have literally made themselves at home on this transcontinental journey. Each car is a little community unto itself replete with residential compartments, a hallway for small talk or promenading, restrooms, and a smoking area at the far end of the car. Unlike the car I am riding in, these cars are "hard" class, meaning four berths to a compartment. Walking through them is like a stroll through someone else's neighborhood.

Having arrived at the dining car, the wide array of items on the menu is encouraging. it turns out, however, that only those items that have penciled in prices next to them are available. Typically this means bread, cheese, and cold cuts for breakfast, and beef, potatoes, and cucumbers for lunch or diner.

And the "service" -- one time I entered the dining car when three groups of people were just finishing breakfast. The waitress cleaned up after them before even acknowledging my presence. Fifteen minutes had gone by. I was now alone in the stolovaya with a waitress, a cashier, a cook, and an administrator. The cash register malfunctioned and they all turned their attention to it. One-half hour had gone by. Three Soviets entered the car and sat down at the table next to mine. Nothing happened. Fifteen more minutes went by. The Soviet passengers were peeved. They yelled at the waitress. She yelled back. I had now been waiting one hour. Finally the waitress brought the Soviets some soup to appease them. They pointed out that I had been waiting even longer. She turned to me defiantly. I said in my coolest Clint Eastwood manner: "Doomayo, chto menyeh noozhna escho vremiya." (I think I need a little more time.) Then I got up and left. Believe me. When it comes to service, socialism leaves much to be desired.

From Irkutsk to Khabarovsk in the Soviet Far East is like our Rocky Mountain states. Indeed the region still has the flavor of the frontier. Irkutsk is the fur processing center of Siberia. Gold and silver are to be found nearby. And Lake Baikal is like California's Lake Tahoe, magnified tenfold. It is truly magnificent. Farther down the track we crawl across the northern edge of the Gobi Desert near the border with Outer Mongolia. After all of this, it's still another two days to Khabarovsk.

Discomforts aside, the one thing that must be said of the Great Siberian Railroad is that it offers a glimpse not only of its relatively undeveloped condition. We pass hundreds of peasant villages filled with chocolate colored houses ("izbas" in Russian) that lead you to believe you are traveling in the early part of this century if not the last. There are no paved roads, no signs of electricity or running water, and almost no cars. By what we're accustomed to, it's unbelievably backward. Mind you, I'm not saying it's worse than our way of life, or even poorer -- unless you define wealth in terms of comfort and convenience -- but I am saying it's a harder life to be sure. To think that this is the same Soviet Union that has put men and women into space! (But, of course, as I say these words I envision my counterpart, the Soviet professor of recreation, driving through the south side of Chicago, or Watts in Los Angeles, or some of the hill country in the Appalachian states saying, "To think that this is the same United States that has put men on the moon!)

In light of all the differences between the United States and the Soviet Union, a journey on the Great Siberian Railroad provides ample time to consider their futures as well. As I watch the countryside roll by on the last day of my trip, I am reminded of Alexis de Tocqueville's comparison of the two countries at the close of his first volume of Democracy In America written in 1835:

> All other nations seem to have nearly reached their natural limits, and they have only to maintain their power; but these are still in the act of growing. All others have stopped, or continue to advance with extreme difficulty; these alone are proceeding with ease and celerity along a path to which no limit can be perceived. The American struggles against the obstacles that nature imposes to him; the adversaries of the Russians are men. The former combats the wilderness and savage life; the latter, civilization with all its arms. The conquests of the American are therefore gained by the plowshare; those of the Russian by the sword. The Anglo-American relies upon personal interest to accomplish his ends and gives free scope to the unguided strength and common sense of the people; the Russian centers all authority of society in a single arm. The principle instrument of the former is freedom; of the latter, servitude. Their starting-point is different and their courses are not the same; yet each of them seems marked out by the will of Heaven to sway the destinies of half the globe.

More than 150 years later, Tocqueville's analysis still rings true. The United States and the Soviet Union continue to offer the world two contrasting styles of life and leadership. But in this nuclear age it is increasingly clear that their divergent and oftentimes conflicting ideologies must give way to more convergent and complementary thinking. This is the promise of glasnost, perestroika, and the new thinking and underlying Mikhail Gorbachev's foreign policy. What will become of it all is hard to say. But as I exit the train in Khabarovsk on this crisp, clear May morning, there is, in my mind, reason for hope. For I have just traveled the length of the "evil" empire. I have seen with my own eyes. And I am going to live to tell about it.

**THE RELATIONSHIP OF**
**FAMILY RECREATIONAL PATTERNS**
**MARITAL QUALITY**

**Dianne S. Smith**

The concept of 'family' in American society has changed tremendously in the last twenty years. According to Naisbitt (1982) only seven to eight percent of today's families fit the 'traditional' definition. Some possible reasons for this include; the increase of divorce among couples, the financial necessity of both parents working, plus the increase of alternative family forms like single parents, never married parents, cohabitation and homosexual couples. A major function of adult life is to find stability in the many changes occurring to family structure and form.

Although the form of family is changing, the need for stability in a family setting and the importance of family in meeting human needs, appears to remain. The importance that adult Americans place on having a good family life is reported in nation wide polls. Yankelovich (1981) found that 96 percent of adult Americans polled were dedicated to the ideal of two people sharing a life and home together. Gallup (1982) found that eight of every ten adults he polled said their family was "the most" or "one of the most" important facets of their lives. Despite this acknowledgement of family importance and ideals, practical living statistics seem to indicate a lessening of family values and unity.

In his book, Families - the Future of America, Voth (1984:15) reports the divorce rate above 50 percent, with second marriages failing at close to 60 percent. This fact combined with an illegitimacy rate of 20 percent nationwide, the problems of family violence, and substance abuse all create disunity in families. Furthermore, changes in the roles of adult family members have been noted by current research. Yankelovich (1981) discusses an increase of women working, dual career couples, house-husbands, fathers more involved in child rearing, and even couples living many miles apart for the sake of jobs. He also charges the development of the "me" generation with reducing interaction between parents and children.

Deteriorating relationships and lack of time together as a family are noted by Walsh (1983:4) resulting in decreased emotional ties and weaker relationships between parents and children. Some of the breakdown of family unity has been attributed to the increased stress places upon today's families. Witt and Goodale (1983:33) make a case for the resourcefulness of the family setting in increasing the ability for adequate stress relieving leisure experiences. Staniford (1984:42) states that most families today spend more of their time potentially at leisure than anything else. He bemoans the fact that very little has been done in North America to educate adults on the importance for wholesome leisure encompassing life-style adaption and change for families.

Stinnett (1982) and Milofsky (1981) conducted research into the development of "strong, happy families". They identified six "happy" family behaviors, all of which can be incorporated in recreational activity. They are: 1. spending time together; 2. using good communication patterns; 3. having a commitment to the family group; 4. showing appreciation for one another; 5. a tendency toward religion; and 6. dealing with family crises in a positive manner. An interesting aspect of family recreation is discussed by Couchman (1982:46). He talks about the group cohesion that results when a small group of people take an adventurous trip together. He suggests substituting the family for the group of non-related individuals, and points out that the experience can be no less powerful in shaping the identity of the family as a cohesive group. He claims that after a family has participated in this type of activity, they are provided with new life skills and the energy to withstand the buffeting which they will continue to receive from numerous external sources in their lives. He concludes that family recreational experiences seem to be a strong antidote against the stresses and pressures of family and personal life. Could there possibly be some truth to the old cliche' ..."The family that plays together - stays together". (Holman 1985:73). As adult members of families facing todays stresses and challenges there should be further investigation of any means available to gain strength and unity in families. If couple and family recreation build family unity, would lack of recreational activity as a couple and family possibly be a factor in non-unified families? Does divorce serve as an indicator of a non-unified family?

STUDY OF DIVORCED ADULTS

An exploratory study was undertaken to survey adult, divorced, single parents regarding the amount of time devoted to both couple and family recreation before the divorce. Questions were asked pertaining to the kinds of frequency of activities and the attitudes of the respondent toward couple, spouse, and family recreation. The population for the study was adult, divorced, single parents - members of the Parents Without Partners organization in the central area of Washington state. Fifty-three valid responses were obtained for use in compiling data.

COUPLE PARTICIPATION

It was found that couple participation, in the former marriage, was predominately "occasional" with 65.4 percent of the respondents indicating that choice over "Never", "Sometimes", "Frequently", or "Always". The kinds of recreational activities the former couples engaged in were, for the most part, non-interactive. The kinds least often participated in were active. The activities most often engaged in by the former couples were; watching television or movies, visiting friends, and having an 'evening out'. These activities might have been engaged in more often because they are less expensive and take little planning time or energy. More importantly, very little interaction between the couple. The recreational activities least often engaged in by former couples were; reading, or studying together, being active in sports, and attending church. Responses indicated that these activities take more planning and energy to accomplish and also require more direct personal and couple interaction. On the 5-point Likert scale used to judge the total extent of participation, the highest ranked couple activity was 3.47. This overall average again indicates little interaction between the little time spent in recreational activities by the former couple.

FAMILY PARTICIPATION

The respondents were also asked to evaluate how often the entire family had participated in eleven selected activities. The recreational activity most often engaged in by former families was the same as the former couples, that of watching television or movies together. This non-interactive and physically passive

activity was followed in the rankings by family outings and holidays, a more active pursuit. The third most common activity for the former family was visiting friends, again corresponding with the couple ranking. The lowest ranking activities for the entire family also matched the lowest for the couples, that of being active in sports, attending church and reading out loud or telling stories. On the scale used to judge the extent of total family participation, even the highest family activity was only 3.24 on the scale of five. In addition, 64.4 percent of the families responded that they participated in family recreational activity only "Occasionally".

## FEELINGS ABOUT RECREATION TIME

Next the respondents were asked to evaluate their feelings about the amount of time they, their former spouse, and the whole family had spent in recreational activity. The results of this evaluation found that 73.6 percent felt they had spent 'Too Little' time in recreational activity as a couple. Another 24.5 percent felt their activity level was 'About Right' and 1.9 percent (one person) felt they had spent 'Too Much' time in recreational activities as a couple. A majority of the respondents (52.8%) felt they had spent 'Too Little' time in their own recreational activity, 37.7 percent felt their own time was 'About Right' and 9.4 percent felt they had spent 'Too Much' time in their own recreational activity. Of those surveyed, it was found that 32.7 percent felt their spouse had spent 'Too Little' time in personal recreational activity, while 25.0 percent felt their spouse's own recreational time was 'About Right'. There were 42.3 percent who felt their spouse had spent 'Too Much' time in personal recreational activity. Of interest, when sex of the respondent is taken into consideration, 50 percent of the females felt their former husband spent 'Too Much' time in his own activity, but also 50 percent of the males felt their former wives had spent 'Too Little' time in her own activity.

A definite majority (73.6%) of the respondents felt that the whole family had spent 'Too Little' time playing together. None of the respondents felt that the family had spent 'Too Much' time and 26.4 percent felt their former family participation was 'About Right'.

## ATTITUDES ABOUT RECREATIONAL ACTIVITY

In appraising their attitudes toward recreational activity the respondents overwhelmingly agreed that regular scheduled recreational activities were important for couples (86.6%). All of the respondents (100.0%) felt it was important for family to play and have fun together. The response to the statement that family recreational activities contribute to family unity was also agreed to by a vast majority (98.2%). When asked to agree or disagree with the statement that regularly scheduled family activities are more bother than they are worth, a distinct majority disagreed (86.6%). These responses indicate a very positive attitude toward the benefit of recreational activity for both couples and families, although coming from divorced persons.

## DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

There were almost three times as many female respondents (76.5%) as there were male respondents (23.5%) who completed the survey. The age at marriage for the respondents had a wide range from 17 years old to 36 years old, with the highest number (10) marrying at age 19 and the average marrying age of 22.5 years. The number of years the respondents had married displayed an even wider range extending from one year married to thirty years married before the divorce. The highest percentage (13.2%) of responses was seven who reported being married for five years, the average length of marriage was twelve years. The survey data indicated the respondents were well educated with 94.4 percent graduated from high school or obtaining a GED. Of these, 54.7 percent completed some college work. Family income had another wide range with the lowest reported $1,800.00 annually and the highest reported $100,000.00 average family income was $25,750.00. Religious affiliation of the respondent was mostly 'Protestant' (54.3%) with 24.5 percent answering "none" and 20.4 percent Catholic. Responses to the question who initiated the divorce were spread between self-initiated (56.4%) spouse-initiated (30.8%) and mutual agreement (12.8%).

## SUMMARY

Findings of this study seem to indicate some inconsistency between knowledge, attitudes and behavior. ALmost total agreement was reported concerning the importance of recreational activity for

couples and families, but low levels of activity were actually engaged in by both former couples and former families. It is possible that some learning had taken place in the lives of the respondents after the divorce and before the survey. One respondent actually reported playing more than before the divorce because of increased awareness of the importance to family unity. Considered as contributing to this dilemma is a seeming lack of education in our society about the importance and benefits of couple and family recreational activity. Very few agencies concerned with providing leisure and recreational experiences program for couples and families. In deed, in many situations, programming tends to separate the family by age group or sex for recreational purposes.

These results agree with other research studies in suggesting that recreational activity can contribute to both couple and family strength and stability. The high incidence of non-interactive activity in the former marriages and families agrees with studies by Lynn (1983) and Regheb (1975) that determined high strength families ranked high in active, outdoor and sports participation. The low incidence of church attendance among the former couples and families was in agreement with Milofsky (1981) that identified one of six "happy family" behaviors as a tendency toward religion. Another study by Rampey (1983) concluded that being religious and having a "purpose in life" was the best predictor of family success. The fact that these former couples and families spend little time in recreational activity, especially inter-active recreational activity and religious activity, seems to indicate that they lacked family strength and unity. The fact that these families were disrupted by divorce is a pretty good indicator itself of a lack of strength and unity.

Although limited in scope these finding have some implications for leisure and recreational professionals. More information is needed about the influence of active recreational participation in building couple and family strength. Why does active sports participation or an outdoor experience help families feel closer to each other? Carlson (1978:187) suggest that although studies have shown that the family is the most frequent group engaging in recreational activity, few studies have focused specifically on the interrelationships between recreational activities and family behavior. Does it make a difference if the family is headed by a single adult in the activity?

Campbell (1980) studied adult, single parents on the quality of American life. Where other studies of the single life have shown a tendency toward increased mental and physical problems, Campbell found with the addition of children, raking the single person a parent, the results obtained were more closely resembling the two parent families. Another interesting finding of this study was that single parents have more hours a week for leisure (25) than either the traditional (24) or the dual career parents (23). It would seem that the benefits of family recreational activity are not limited to traditional forms of family.

These findings indicate that it is important for adults in society to use these ways and means of building stronger, more stable families. The family continues to be the basis of a strong, healthy society and this and other studies lend support to the important role played by adults in this basic social institution. Ron Mendell (1984:2) in is keynote address at the 1984 AALR Convention in Anaheim, California, affirmed the changes happening to families and counseled recreation professionals to offer more to families than just a way to pass time. He concludes: "The family is, and must be more than a passive commitment to human continuance. I think we can intervene into child abuse, the high divorce rate separations. . .with skillful and creative leisure environments and innovative recreation programming." In providing adult members of families with the means, skills and programs to build family unity and strength, all of society will benefit.

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## DO YOU HAVE "THE RIGHT STUFF" TO BE AN ENTREPRENEUR

By John Crossley and Taylor Ellis
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In recent years, there has been much media attention given to the role of the entrepreneur in our society. It is attention that is easily justified. During the 1950's, about 50,000 new businesses were started each year in the United States. By 1986, this figure increased to 251,597. Most new jobs are created by small entrepreneurial businesses, and small business accounts for 30% of the Gross National Product (Johnson, 1987).

There are numerous classic examples of entrepreneurs who have gained fame and financial success in the Leisure Industry. Walt Disney, Howard Head, and Nolan Bushnell are names that most recreation professionals should recognize. Entrepreneurship does not however have to be limited to the private sector. As suggested by Benest and Foley (1988), "entrepreneurship is more a state of mind or philosophy which promotes innovation and calculated risk taking." This is consistent with Peter Drucker's (1985) view that an entrepreneur studies the environment, analyze change in the environment (especially social change, market trends, and technological advancements), and exploits the change by developing a new or improved product/service. This is a process that is applicable in <u>all</u> aspects of the leisure industry, public or private.

Indeed, public or non-profit agency recreation professionals can act as "intrapreneurs" who work in entrepreneurial ways within and organization (Pinchot, 1981). Granted, there may be some bureaucratic barriers to intrapreneurism, but the "bottom line" rests with the individual's effort. As Nolan Bushnell, founder of Atari video games said:

> The critical ingredient is getting off your ass and doing something. A lot of people have ideas, but there are few who decide to do something about them <u>now</u>. Not tomorrow, not next week, but today (Merwin, 1981, p. 60).

The question now is, "Do you have what it takes to be an entrepreneur or intrepreneur?" It may be fun to test yourself with an "entrepreneurs exam." The self-scored exam provided here is based on characteristics believed to exist for the typical entrepreneur, according to research by Van Voorhis (1980), Mancuso (1974), Merwin (1981), Gregory (1986), Hammond (1986), Berger and Bronson (1981), and research reported by Ross (1987), Shrzychi (1987), Edington and Rittman (1987), and Reveron (1989).

Don't despair if you fall short on this test. Remember that the test is based upon a set of "typical" characteristics. It is not meant to predict your future, but to show how you compare to the generic entrepreneur.

ENTREPRENEUR EXAM

For the following questions please circle the answer that best describes your feelings, desires, or characteristics. Use the following scale for your responses:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SA | = | Strongly Agree | A | = | Agree |
| N | = | Neutral | D | = | Disagree |
| SD | = | Strongly Disagree | | | |

| | | SA | A | N | D | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | My parents are employed as managers or in professional occupations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | At least one of my parents always worked for himself/herself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | I like to be conservative. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | If I like an idea do not lack motivation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | I do not see myself as a leader | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. | I am able to work on several tasks at the same time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. | I accept "no" as the final answer to my ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. | I am a creative person. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. | I am interested in creating something that is uniquely mine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. | I don't care if others think I am honest and fair. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. | I find myself continually looking for good ideas. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. | I am able to be honest with myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. | I am more concerned with achievement than wealth. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. | I have no limitations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. | I enjoy watching sports events. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. | I enjoy belonging to many groups. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. | When I am working on something I enjoy, I forget about everything else, even time. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. | My friends are the smartest people I can find. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. | I love to take big risks. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. | I have not excelled in sports. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. | I am aware of my own limitations. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. | In general I am very optimistic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. | In general I am very optimistic. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. | I enjoy taking orders from people in authority. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. | My career experience has been in small business (under 100 employees). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. | I feel that I work hard and with intelligence on any project that I undertake. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. | In every business situation I like to know who is in charge. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. | When I play a competitive sport I am concerned only about winning and losing. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## SCORING

Add up the response number you circled for each of the following questions: 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 17, 18, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, and 27.

For each of the remaining questions, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, 15, 16, 19, 20, 24, and 28, subtract the number you circled from six and add the answers together.

Add up the two scores to find your entrepreneurial score. To gain an indication of your entrepreneurial ability, compare your score to the interpretations below.

| | |
|---|---|
| 28 to 56 | Good chance to become an entrepreneur |
| 57 to 84 | Fair entrepreneurial potential |
| 85 to 112 | Marginal entrepreneurial potential |
| 113 to 140 | Keep working for a large company |

Test Developed by Taylor Ellis, Ph.D. and M.B.A., University of Utah, 1987.

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# NATIONAL STANDARDS IN THE PRICING OF PUBLIC PARKS AND RECREATIONAL SERVICES

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ABSTRACT: Public agencies fees and charges should reflect some element of economic logic rather than an arbitrary selection based on tradition. Historically some agencies have based their pricing decisions on: at cost formulas, profit-development formulas, traditional community experience, and private enterprise cost relationships. This paper presents the results of a national pricing study in which a "national standard" price for recreation center, lessons, tournaments, and leagues was developed. An agency can then compare their pricing structure to this national average and in this regard have some basis for their pricing formula.

## INTRODUCTION

Pricing of public parks and recreation services has always been at the center of the philosophy of the parks and recreation discipline. Historically services were provided for free or for a price-reduced basis in an attempt to provide this most needed public service to the greatest number of citizens. In the more recent past, pressure has been placed on public agencies to take a greater role in meeting the costs of the programs and services provided. Administrations have battled with this new "profit-loss" approach and have attempted to find solutions to their pricing questions from a variety of different vantage points such as:

1. Price the fee exactly to the cost of the program, but no more, so that profitability is not occurring in the public sector.
2. Create an enterprise account and charge fees that not only pay for the program but leaves some level of profit to improve program delivery in the future.
3. Select some fee that is realistic for the majority of the residents to pay regardless of the relationship of the fee to the actual cost of the program.

4. Use whatever fee has been charge in the past and don't concern oneself with why that fee was selected to begin with.
5. Charge fees that are somewhat consistent with other public parks and recreation agencies in communities that are similar to your own.

One area that has not been investigated since Haley's (1979) study and Sessoms and Krug's (1977) earlier work is the establishment of a national pricing standard for public parks and recreation services. Haley found in the study of seventy-six communities nationwide that the average operating expenditure for central cities was $7.80 per capita, and suburbs averaged $6.43 per capita.

Haley (1984) also updated the works of Sessoms and Krug and suggested that the 1951-52 per capita expenditures of $2.00 could be increased to $22.40 per capital for 1979-80 adjusting for the Consumer Price Index. But, what is the current national pricing standard - particularly for recreation center admission, lessons, leagues and tournaments?

## METHOD

A national survey was sent to six-hundred (600) parks and recreation agencies representing each of the fifty states. The number of surveys distributed to each state was proportionate to their population as a percentage of the total U.S. population as determined by the United States Census Bureau. Four hundred and seventy (470) surveys were returned and usable representing seventy-eight (78%) percent of the data pool. The representativeness of the surveys is sufficient to make national and regional generalizations. The survey instrument posed six (6) major questions with one-hundred and twenty (120) sub-question categories in which the issue of pricing was the dominate inquiry factor.

## FINDINGS

The following represents the major findings of the study with specific attention given to the areas of recreation center admission, lesson fees, league fees and tournament prices.

RECREATION CENTER: NATIONAL PRICING STANDARD

Thirty-three (33%) percent of the parks and recreation agencies nationwide provide a recreation center as a service to their citizens with twenty-three (23%) percent of those centers charging a specific entrance fee. The average entry fee was $2.65 for all categories with a range from 95 cents to $3.58 depending on the entry category, of adult, youth, student, family or senior citizen, the entry fee could be as high as one and one-half percent higher than the average or as low as forty (40%) percent of the average fee (see Table 1).

| Entrance Category | Resident | Range | % of Ave. fee | Non-Res. | Range | % of Ave. fee |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Adult | $3.26 | $ 1.-10. | 123.0% | $4.10 | $1 - 12. | 133.1% |
| Youth (5-11) | 2.20 | .75 - 8. | 83.0 | 2.55 | .75- 10. | 82.7 |
| Family | 4.50 | 2.50- 6. | 169.8 | 5.00 | 2.5- 10. | 162.2 |
| Sen. Cit. | 1.05 | free-1.50 | 39.6 | 1.25 | free-1.50 | 40.5 |
| Student (2-18) | 2.27 | .50 - 5. | 85.6 | 2.50 | .50 - 5. | 81.1 |
| Ave. Total | $2.65 | .95 -3.58 | 100.0 | $3.08 | .85 -3.74 | 100.00 |

Table 1: Average fees, ranges and percent of average fee for residents and non-residents for recreation center entrance by entrance category.

Non-residents averaged $3.08 for their average entry fee with their range from 85 cents to $3.74 which averaged from forty (40%) percent to one hundred and sixty-two (162%) percent of the average fee (see Table 1).

It can be determined that senior citizens are required to pay an entry fee that is approximately forty (39.6%) percent of the average entry fee while families pay more than one and one-half (169.8%) times the average entry fee.

Once entrance to the recreation center occurs a variety of open-recreation facilities are available for a fee or a non-fee basis. The most common type of recreation center entitlement was a weight room, seventy-eight (78%) percent with tennis courts being

the least available entitlement, eighteen (18%) percent. The most expensive additional fee was for racquetball courts ($4.45) charged by sixteen (16%) percent of the centers with track being the least expensive (.10 cents) with twenty-five (25%) percent of the centers charging this additional fee.

| Patron Entitlement | % offering this facility | % charging and add. fee | Additional fee if not included in entry fee |
|---|---|---|---|
| Shower/Locker | 62.5% | 62% | $1.00 |
| Racquetball | 50.0 | 16 | 4.45 |
| Track | 31.0 | 25 | .10 |
| Basket/Volley | 56.0 | 50 | 1.00 |
| Tennis | 18.0 | 12 | 2.00 |
| Weight Room | 75.0 | 50 | 2.16 |
| Game Room | 37.5 | 37 | 1.00 |
| Sauna/Steam | 25.0 | 18 | 2.00 |
| Average | 44.3% | 33.75% | $1.94 |

Table 2: Patron entitlement, percent of availability, percent of additional fee and average additional fee.

When computing the average entry fee ($2.65) with the average additional fee ($1.94), a resident might spend an average of $4.59 while a non-resident ($3.08 + 1.94) might spend $5.02 which is an average of nine (9%) percent higher fee for the non-resident.

LESSONS: NATIONAL FEE STANDARD

It was determined that the average lesson fee for all categories was $18.87 with a range in charges from $7.14 - #34.85 depending on the type of lesson. The most common lesson offering was tennis, sixty-five and nine-tenths (65.9%) percent with cooking being the least offered lesson format, twelve (12%) percent. The most expensive lesson fee charged was aerobic dance ($25.68) with the least expensive being racquetball at $14.25.

| Lesson offering | % providing this offering | Resident fee | Range | Ave. No. of lessons for fee | Range of lessons |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tennis | 65.9% | $15.24 | $3.50-35. | 8 | 1 - 16 |
| Racquetball | 12.7 | 14.25 | 10. -20. | 6 | 5 - 10 |
| Self Defense | 34.0 | 18.12 | 8. -30. | 8 | 4 - 20 |
| Cooking | 12.0 | 21.70 | free -34. | 7 | 6 - 10 |
| Gymnastics | 42.5 | 15.41 | 9. -25. | 10 | 4 - 12 |
| Aerobics | 53.0 | 25.68 | 12. -60. | 14 | 6 - 36 |
| Golf | 27.0 | 21.73 | 75. -40. | 7 | 4 - 12 |
| Ave. Total | 35.3% | $18.87 | $7.14-35. | 8.5 | 4 - 16 |

Table 3: Lesson offerings, percent offering those options, resident fee and range of fees and average number of lessons for fee and range of number of lessons.

However, when computing the fee by the number of lessons provided, then gymnastics as the least expensive for the patron at $1.54 per lesson with cooking and golf the most expensive at $3.10 per lesson.

| Lesson offering | Average Resident fee per lesson | Average non-resident fee per lesson |
|---|---|---|
| Tennis | $1.90 | $2.58 |
| Racquetball | 2.37 | 4.16 |
| Self Defense | 2.26 | 2.14 |
| Cooking | 3.10 | 6.35 |
| Gymnastics | 1.54 | 1.81 |
| Aerobic Dance | 1.83 | 1.85 |
| Golf | 3.10 | 3.30 |
| Average Total | $2.30 | $3.20 |

Table 4: Lesson offering, average resident and average non-resident fee per lesson.

The non-resident paid an average lesson fee of $22.91 which is a thirty-five (35%) percent higher average fee than residents, additionally about one-third (35%) of the agencies charged non-residents an additional fee.

| Lesson offering | Non-Resident fee | % Charging NR fee | % NR fee is + |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tennis | $20.64 | 35% | 35% |
| Racquetball | 25.00 | 16 | 75 |
| Self Defense | 19.35 | 43 | 6 |
| Cooking | 44.50 | 33 | 105 |
| Gymnastics | 18.15 | 58 | 19 |
| Aerobic Dance | 26.03 | 28 | 1 |
| Golf | 23.10 | 38 | 6 |
| Average Total | $22.91 | 35% | 35% |

Table 5: Lesson offering with non-resident fee, percent charging a non-resident fee, percent that non-resident fee is greater than resident fee.

The average number of lessons offered a patron was eight and one-half (8.5) with a range of from, as few as, one (1) lesson to as many as thirty-six (36) for the fee.

**LEAGUES: NATIONAL FEE STANDARD**

The most common and expensive adult league play nationwide was softball with eighty-eight (88%) percent of the agencies providing this competition element with an average team fee of $278.00. The most common youth league was softball and baseball (both 65%) with an average fee of $14.21 and $16.13 respectfully.

| League offering | % providing this offering | Resident fee | Range | Ave. # of games/fee | Range of games |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Softball (Adult) | 88% | $278/team | $70 - 500 | 16 | 9 - 30 |
| Basketball (Adult) | 80 | 240 | 100 - 375 | 13 | 8 - 20 |
| Flag Football (A) | 21 | 158 | 60 - 300 | 9 | 8 - 10 |
| Volleyball (Adult) | 77 | 107 | 65 - 200 | 12 | 8 - 30 |
| Flag Football (Y) | 25 | 18/indiv | free- 28 | 9 | 8 - 15 |
| Softball (Youth) | 63 | 14.21 | 3 - 35 | 12 | 6 - 16 |
| Baseball (Youth) | 63 | 16.13 | 3 - 35 | 12 | 6 - 21 |
| Basketball (Youth) | 61 | 12.17 | 4 - 25 | 10 | 6 - 20 |
| Total Average | $195/team<br>59.75 | $75-345/t<br>$15.12/in | $2.5-30/i | 11.62 | 7 - 20 |

Table 6: League offerings, percent offering this option, resident fee, range of resident fee, number of games for fee and range of games offered for fee.

The most inexpensive adult team league per game was volleyball at $8.91 with basketball the most expensive at $18.46 per game. For youth the least expensive was softball at $1.18 per game with flag football the most expensive at $2.00 per game.

| League offering | Average Resident fee/game | Average NR fee/game |
|---|---|---|
| Softball (A) | $17.37 | $20.37 |
| Basketball | 18.46 | 18.92 |
| Flag Football | 17.55 | 23.00 |
| Volleyball | 8.91 | 11.75 |
| Flag Football (Y) | 2.00 | 2.22 |
| Softball | 1.18 | 1.34 |
| Baseball | 1.34 | 1.56 |
| Basketball | 1.21 | 1.47 |
| Average Total | $15.57/team $1.43/individual | $18.51/team $1.64/indiv |

Table 7: League offerings, average resident fee per game, average non-resident fee per game.

However, the non-resident saw a greater per game expense for adult flag football and least expensive for youth was softball. The average league fee for adult teams was $15.57 for residents and $18.51 for non-residents, a 13.75% increase. For individuals the average league fee was $1.43 for residents and $1.64 for non-residents.

The non-resident was required to pay an average of thirteen (13%) percent higher fee for league play but only twenty (20%) percent of the agencies charged an additional fee for leagues compared to lessons which was an average additional fee of thirty-five (35%) percent.

| Leagues offered | N.R. fee | % Charging N.R. fee | % N.R. fee is add. + |
|---|---|---|---|
| Softball | $326/team | 17% | 15% |
| Basketball | 246 | 15 | 3 |
| Flag Football | 207 | 18 | 24 |
| Volleyball | 141 | 23 | 25 |
| Flag Football | $20.00/in | 16 | 9 |
| Softball | 16.14 | 25 | 15 |
| Baseball | 18.83 | 20 | 15 |
| Basketball | 14.75 | 27 | 18 |
| | $230.team | | |
| Average Total | $17.43in | 20 | 13.75 |

Table 8: League offerings, non-resident fee, percent charging a non-resident fee, percent non-resident fee is higher than resident fee.

Leagues guaranteed almost twelve (12) games for the fee paid with a range of seven to twenty games (7-20).

**TOURNAMENTS: NATIONAL FEE STANDARD**

The most popular tournament provided by recreation agencies nationally were softball, fifty-one (51%) percent with racquetball being the least popular tournament at ten (10%) percent. The most expensive tournament was softball both for a straight team fee ($104.56) and on a cost per game ($147.52). The least expensive was racquetball ($14.00).

| Tournaments offered | % providing this offering | Resident fee | Range | Ave. # of games | Range of games |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tennis | 23% | $ 11.77 | $ 4.00- 25.00 | 1 | 1 - 3 |
| Softball | 51 | 104.56 | 70.00-150.00 | 2.2 | 2 - 3 |
| Basketball | 32 | 73.42 | 25.00-310.00 | 2 | 1 - 3 |
| Racquetball | 10 | 14.00 | 15.00- 25.00 | 2 | 1 - 2 |
| Volleyball | 21 | 47.50 | 50.00-100.00 | 2 | 2 - 6 |
| | $12.88/in | $ 9.5-25/indiv | | | |
| Total Ave. | 27.4% | $75.16/te | $47.5-230/team | 2 | 1.4-3.2 |

Table 9: Tournaments offered, percent providing this type of tournament, average resident fee, range of fees, average number of games, range of games.

The average fee per game for individual tournaments was $9.38 and $35.99 for teams for residents. For non-residents the per game fee was twelve and one-half (12.5%) percent higher. Only three (3%) percent of the agencies charged a non-resident an additional fee for team play, while eleven (11%) percent charged for individual tournament play which was an average of twelve and one-half (12.5%) percent additional. The residents per game fee was $15.50 for individual and $84.00 for team for non-residents.

| Tournaments offered | Average resident fee/game | | Average N.R. fee/game | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tennis | $11.77 | | $15.00 | |
| Softball | 47.52 | | 56.81 | |
| Basketball | 36.71 | | 39.00 | |
| Racquetball | 7.00 | | 8.00 | |
| Volleyball | 23.75 | | 24.50 | |
| Total Average | $9.38/indiv. | $35.99/team | $11.50/indiv. | $40.10/team |

Table 10: Tournaments offered with average resident and non-resident fee per game.

| Tournaments offered | N.R. fee | % N.R. fee | % N.R. fee is add. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tennis | $ 15.00 | 20% | 22% |
| Softball | 125.00 | 4 | 17 |
| Basketball | 78.00 | 4 | 6 |
| Racquetball | 16.00 | 2 | 14 |
| Volleyball | 49.00 | 2 | 3.5 |
| Total Average | $15.50/in<br>$85./team | 11% indiv.<br>3% team | 12.5% |

Table 11: Tournaments offered, average non-resident fee, percent charging an additional non-resident fee and percent of additional fee.

## DISCUSSION

The parks and recreation administrator is able to take the pricing structure for their public services and compare those charges to these national averages. If the fees of the local agency are dramatically different than the national standard, further investigation into pricing logic is suggested. It may be very appropriate to have pricing that is different from the national standard for a whole host of local factors. But, if the administrator is looking for a pricing structure that "mirrors" national averages the results of this study should prove helpful.

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# STATE PARKS AND RECREATION AREAS: THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOME COMPARATIVE MEASURES

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## INTRODUCTION

The availability of state parks and recreation areas is the combination of many factors not the least of which include: the vision of elected and appointed government decision-makers, the level of financial commitment, favorable federal, state a d local legislation, sound and progressive planning techniques, not to mention the inheritance of the natural resource itself. In the best of all worlds, these elements and many others come tor ther to create a legacy of preserved and appropriately used natur . and scenic wonders. The variety, size, level of development, theme and attractiveness of state parks and recreation areas nationwide is a testimony of the inherited beauties and unique challenges of each region of the country. Perhaps, due to the many dimensions of America's natural geography, professional parks and recreation planners have found it difficult and perhaps not even appropriate to develop planning standards (resource, human, fiscal or otherwise) for state parks and recreation areas. However, good management would suggest that continuous evaluation and comparison is helpful in effective future planning. Therefore, an effort has been made to develop some comparative measures for agencies held responsible for these wonders of nature.

## COMPARATIVE MEASURES DEVELOPMENT

To develop some comparative measures, a variety of statistical data collected nationwide was used to determine the relationship of state park and recreation acreage; to: state population, sate park visitation rates, and state park budgets. Also, the state population was compared to state park budgets to create an additional comparative measure.

| Region and State | Acreagé (1,000) | Population (1,000) | Visitors (1,000) | Revenue Generated (1,000) | Budget (1,000) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 729 | 12,738 | 32,517 | 21,949 | 48,052 |
| ME | 72 | 1,174 | 2,072 | 1,266 | 3,895 |
| NH | 30 | 1,027 | 3,906 | 6,819 | 6,853 |
| VT | 171 | 541 | 786 | 2,801 | 3,078 |
| MA | 266 | 5,832 | 12,240 | 6,050 | 18,731 |
| RI | 9 | 975 | 5,807 | 1,465 | 5,487 |
| CT | 181 | 3,189 | 7,706 | 2,282 | 10,009 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 834 | 37,281 | 83,416 | 33,320 | 153,576 |
| NY | 258 | 17,772 | 37,514 | 22,632 | 100,142 |
| NJ | 300 | 7,620 | 9,599 | 5,213 | 20,050 |
| PA | 276 | 11,889 | 36,303 | 5,475 | 33,384 |
| N.E. Central | 982 | 41,739 | 147,359 | 39,605 | 98,686 |
| OH | 193 | 10,752 | 68,164 | 10,000 | 36,101 |
| IN | 54 | 5,504 | 9,885 | 7,434 | 9,939 |
| IL | 363 | 11,553 | 35,190 | 2,1[illegible]3 | 22,828 |
| MI | 253 | 9,145 | 22,845 | 13,951 | 19,622 |
| WI | 119 | 4,785 | 11,275 | 6,097 | 10,196 |
| N.W. Central | 3,914 | 17,577 | 47,861 | 18,140 | 44,569 |
| MN | 3,441 | 4,214 | 6,001 | 4,596 | 11,451 |
| IA | 52 | 2,851 | 10,024 | 2,162 | 5,028 |
| MO | 107 | 5,066 | 12,442 | 2,324 | 16,482 |
| ND | 16 | 679 | 950 | 640 | 1,588 |
| SD | 113 | 708 | 5,579 | 2,532 | 4,888 |
| NE | 148 | 1,598 | 8,413 | 3,957 | 748 |
| KS | 37 | 2,461 | 4,452 | 1,929 | 4,384 |
| S. Atlantic | 1,030 | 40,161 | 64,947 | 49,041 | 104,750 |
| DE | 11 | 633 | 2,738 | 2,916 | 4,028 |
| MD | 216 | 4,463 | 6,890 | 5,535 | 15,248 |
| VA | 54 | 5,787 | 3,635 | 1,558 | 6,282 |
| WV | 206 | 1,919 | 9,129 | 10,462 | 19,592 |
| NC | 125 | 6,331 | 7,152 | 1,182 | 7,207 |
| SC | 79 | 3,378 | 7,803 | 8,360 | 13,571 |
| GA | 61 | 5,975 | 13,310 | 8,569 | 17,778 |
| FL | 278 | 11,675 | 14,290 | 10,459 | 21,044 |
| So. Central | 232 | 15,209 | 59,086 | 60,565 | 101,560 |
| KY | 42 | 3,728 | 24,210 | 31,858 | 51,136 |
| TN | [illegible] | 4,803 | 24,343 | 15,662 | 30,892 |
| AL | 48 | 4,053 | 6,099 | 8,799 | 15,437 |
| MS | 22 | 2,625 | 4,434 | 4,246 | 4,095 |
| S.W. Central | 402 | 26,860 | 43,369 | 26,502 | 66,103 |
| AR | 44 | 2,372 | 7,148 | 8,799 | 16,385 |
| LA | 38 | 4,501 | 740 | 990 | 4,160 |
| OK | 95 | 3,305 | 15,656 | 5,606 | 18,201 |
| TX | 225 | 16,682 | 19,925 | 11,107 | 27,357 |
| Mountain | 900 | 13,020 | 33,589 | 16,723 | 40,0[illegible] |
| MT | 52 | 819 | 4,195 | 467 | 2,865 |
| ID | 47 | 1,003 | 2,281 | 815 | 2,531 |
| WY | 119 | 507 | 1,855 | 101 | 2,405 |
| CO | 287 | 3,267 | 7,924 | 8,635 | 7,836 |
| NM | 119 | 1,479 | 6,791 | 2,231 | 5,856 |
| AZ | 37 | 3,317 | [illegible],088 | 1,395 | 5,407 |

| Region and State | Acreage (1,000) | Population (1,000) | Visitors (1,000) | Revenue Generated (1,000) | Budget (1,000) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| UT | 95 | 1,665 | 5,350 | 2,322 | 9,891 |
| NV | 144 | 963 | 3,104 | 757 | 3,221 |
| Pacific | 4,727 | 35,738 | 182,189 | 45,049 | 185,172 |
| WA | 234 | 4,463 | 46,686 | 5,323 | 22,179 |
| OR | 89 | 2,698 | 37,156 | 6,223 | 18,357 |
| CA | 1,269 | 26,981 | 72,857 | 32,255 | 134,958 |
| AK | 3,110 | 534 | 5,290 | 55 | 5,000 |
| HI | 25 | 1,062 | 20,200 | 1,193 | 4,678 |
| UNITED STATES | 13,750 | 240,323 | 694,433 | 310,894 | 842,481 |

Table 1: State park acreage, visitation, revenue generated, budget by state and region; population of U.S. by state and region.

## ACREAGE-POPULATION COMPARISON

In order to determine the number of residents per acre of state park land, the statistical data for these two areas was analyzed in which it was found that there are 17.48 residents per state park acre. The Southwest Central and Southeast Central regions experienced the highest number of residents per acre (approximately 66 residents per acre) with the Northwest Central region the least residents per acre at 4.49.

| Regions of U.S. | Acreage (1,000) | Population (1,000) | Ratio (adj.) |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 729 | 12,738 | 1:17.47 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 834 | 37,281 | 1:44.70 |
| Northeast Central | 982 | 41,739 | 1:42.50 |
| Northwest Central | 3,914 | 17,577 | 1: 4.49 |
| South Atlantic | 1,030 | 40,161 | 1:38.99 |
| Southeast Central | 232 | 15,209 | 1:65.56 |
| Southwest Central | 402 | 26,860 | 1:66.82 |
| Mountain | 900 | 13,020 | 1:14.47 |
| Pacific | 4,727 | 35,738 | 1: 7.57 |
| UNITED STATES | 13,750 | 240,323 | 1:17.48 |

Table 2: Acreage and population of U.S. by region with national ratio of 17.48 residents per acre of state park land.

The New England region maintained the national average ratic while the regions of Mid-Atlantic and Northeast Central were well above the national average. Also above the average was the South Atlantic region while both the West and Pacific regions were below the ratio. The Northwest Central region includes the relatively sparsely populated states of North Dakota (ranked 46th in national population), South Dakota (ranked 45th), Nebraska (36th), Kansas (32nd) and Iowa (29th). Additionally, within this region is the state of Minnesota which provides the greatest number of state park acres (3,441,000 acres) of any state even eclipsing Alaska by 331,000 acres.

## ACREAGE-VISITOR COMPARISON

The number of visitors to state parks exceeded 690 million with an average nationally of 50.50 visitors per available state park acre. The Southeast Central region exceeded the national average by five times with 254.68 visitors per state park acre. The Northwest Central region experienced the least number of visitors per acre at 12.23.

| Regions of the U.S. | Acreage (1,000) | Visitor 1,000 | Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 729 | 32,517 | 1: 44.60 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 834 | 83,416 | 1:100.02 |
| Northeast Central | 982 | 147,359 | 1:150.06 |
| Northwest Central | 3,914 | 47,861 | 1: 12.23 |
| South Atlantic | 1,030 | 64,947 | 1: 63.06 |
| Southeast Central | 232 | 59,086 | 1:254.68 |
| Southwest Central | 402 | 43,469 | 1:108.13 |
| Mountain | 900 | 33,589 | 1: 37.32 |
| Pacific | 4,727 | 182,189 | 1: 38.54 |
| UNITED STATES | 13,750 | 694,433 | 1: 50.50 |

Table 3: Acreage and visitation of state parks by region of U.S. with national ratio of 50.50 visitors per acre of state park land.

The Southeast Central region has the fewest number of acres of state park and recreation acres than any other region of the United States, but was fifth out of the nine regions in the generation of visitors. Those regions which experienced lower than national average visitor per acre ratio included New England, Mountain and Pacific; while the Mid Atlantic, Northeast Central,

South Atlantic and Southwest Central regions generated more than the national average. The only region to come close to the national average was the South Atlantic region at 63.06 visitors per acre.

## ACREAGE-REVENUE COMPARISON

East state brings in a different amount of revenue from their state parks and recreation areas through user fees and other charges. For example, Connecticut generates as much as 110.2% of their total state park budget in user fees while Alaska only produces 1.1% of their budget through entrance and user fees. The national average of revenue generated per state park acre is $22.61 with a regional range from $261.06 per acre to $4.63 per acre. The regions of New England, Mid Atlantic, Northeast Central, South Atlantic and Southwest Central all produce revenue greater than the national average, while the Mountain and Pacific regions produce less than the national average of revenue

| Regions of the U.S. | Acreage (1,000) | Revenue 1,000 | Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 729 | 21,949 | 1: 30.11 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 834 | 33,320 | 1: 39.95 |
| Northeast Central | 982 | 39,605 | 1: 40.33 |
| Northwest Central | 3,914 | 18,140 | 1: 4.63 |
| South Atlantic | 1,030 | 49,041 | 1: 47.61 |
| Southeast Central | 232 | 60,565 | 1:261.06 |
| Southwest Central | 402 | 26,502 | 1: 65.93 |
| Mountain | 900 | 16,723 | 1: 18.58 |
| Pacific | 4,727 | 45,049 | 1: 9.53 |
| UNITED STATES | 13,750 | 310,894 | 1: 22.61 |

Table 4: Acreage and revenue generation of state parks by regions of U.S. with national ratio of $22.61 of revenue per acre.

The Southeast Central region has the highest per acre revenue generation rate while the Northwest Central has the least. It should be noted that the Southeast Central region experienced the highest number of visitors per acre, while the northwest Central region produced the least number of visitors per acre as a region suggesting a strong relationship between visitor numbers and revenue generation.

## ACREAGE-BUDGET COMPARISON

It was found that the state parks maintain an annual budget of $67.27 per acre for state park land with a regional range in per acre budget of $437.75 to 11.38. The highest state park and recreation budget was California with $134,958,000 while Nebraska required the lowest budget of $746,000.

| Regions of the U.S. | Acreage (1,000) | Budget 1,000 | Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 729 | 48,052 | 1: 65.91 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 834 | 153,576 | 1:184.14 |
| Northeast Central | 982 | 98,686 | 1:100.49 |
| Northwest Central | 3,914 | 44,569 | 1: 11.38 |
| South Atlantic | 1,030 | 104,750 | 1:101.69 |
| Southeast Central | 232 | 101,560 | 1:437.75 |
| Southwest Central | 402 | 66,103 | 1:164.43 |
| Mountain | 900 | 40,012 | 1: 44.45 |
| Pacific | 4,727 | 135,172 | 1: 39.17 |
| UNITED STATES | 13,750 | 842,481 | 1: 61.27 |

Table 5: Acreage and budget of state parks by regions of the U.S. with national ratio of $67.27 per acre expenditure.

The New England region was the closest to the national average while the Mid Atlantic was three times higher, and the regions of the Northeast Central and South Atlantic were both almost twice the national average. The Pacific region was almost one-half of the national average and the Mountain region was under the average. The highest region was the Southeast Central and the lowest was the Northwest Central. The Northwest Central regions have some of the state with the lowest state parks budget including Nebraska with the lowest and North Dakota the second lowest, Kansas eleventh and South Dakota, twelfth. The Southeast Central has the fewest number of acres per region but a regional average budget forth out of the nine regions.

## POPULATION-BUDGET COMPARISON

Nationally, the state parks have a budget of $3.50 per state resident with the New England and Mountain regions maintaining per resident budgets close to the national average, while the regions of the Northeast Central, Northwest Central, South Atlantic and Southwest Central are below the national average.

| Regions of the U.S. | Population (1,000) | Budget 1,000 | Ration |
|---|---|---|---|
| New England | 12,738 | 48,052 | 1:3.77 |
| Mid-Atlantic | 37,281 | 153,576 | 1:4.11 |
| Northeast Central | 41,739 | 98,686 | 1:2.36 |
| Northwest Central | 17,577 | 44,569 | 1:2.53 |
| South Atlantic | 40,161 | 104,750 | 1:2.60 |
| Southeast Central | 15,209 | 101,560 | 1:6.67 |
| Southwest Central | 26,860 | 66,103 | 1:2.46 |
| Mountain | 13,020 | 40,012 | 1:3.07 |
| Pacific | 35,738 | 185,172 | 1:5.18 |
| UNITED STATES | 240,323 | 842,481 | 1:3.50 |

Table 6: Population of the U.S. by region and the state park budget by region with national ratio of $3.50 per resident for state park expenditure.

Higher than the national average includes the regions of the Southeast Central, the Mid Atlantic and the Pacific. The highest regional average was the Southeast Central at $6.67 per resident with the Northeast central the lowest regional average at $2.36. The Northeast Central has the states of Illinois and Ohio which are the fifth and sixth most populated states respectively, while the southeast Central has the fourth highest regional budget but the third lowest population.

## CONCLUSION

Each states parks and recreation agency can compare their specific situation to these regional and national comparative indicators in an effort to obtain some measure of relative standing. It should be clear that these comparative measures are not suggested as national standard indicators or the way things should be. But, it is hoped that they provide some ability to effectively measure, plan and focus future efforts.

# WHITEWATER USE OF THE COLORADO RIVER IN GRAND CANYON NATIONAL PARK

**Lawrence A. Beck**[1]

ABSTRACT: This paper addresses recreational use of the Colorado River as it flows through Grand Canyon National Park. Five alternatives are presented to illustrate the complexities of serving commercial and non-commercial river users where demand for river trips far exceeds the supply.

The Grand Canyon of the Colorado River is located in northern Arizona in the southwestern portion of the Colorado Plateau. Grand Canyon National Park manages the 280-mile river corridor from Lee's Ferry to Lake Mead. The river is surrounded by more than one million acres of land that qualifies for wilderness designation (National Park Service, 1980).

Recreational use of rivers has increased dramatically during the past decade and this trend is expected to continue (Knopf and Lime, 1984). Grand Canyon river trips are especially popular because of the length of the river segment, the expeditionary nature of the journey, and the challenging rapids. According to Lavender (1985), "No other American river offers, in one unbroken stretch, as great an aggregation of rapids." The river is generally considered Class V, the most difficult classification of whitewater. There are more than 160 rapids to challenge river runners.

The Grand Canyon is also well-know for its unique geology, side canyons, cultural history, and desert/riparian wildlife. The Grand Canyon has been identified as the "most sought-after and most intensely managed wilderness in the United States" and, perhaps, the world (Nash, 1982).

Grand Canyon river use has increased significantly since the initial exploration of the canyon by John Wesley Powell in 1869. River use in 1972 alone exceeded the 100-year period from 1869 to 1969 (National Park Service, 1980). Increased visitation resulted in crowding, congestion at attraction sites, multiple trails, trampled vegetation, compacted soils, and the accumulation of human waste, charcoal, and other litter. More than 16,000 persons floated through the canyon in 1972.

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An annual quota was implemented to freeze use at the 1972 level with a ratio of 92 percent use by commercial passengers and eight percent use by non-commercial, private users. This allocation system became quickly outdated as demand for the non-commercial trips increased. Non-commercial river runners who had the knowledge and skills to run the trips on their own questioned the equity of river allocation (Nash 1982).

To further complicate controversy over use of the river the National Park Service attempted to ban the use of motorized rafts in the 1980 Colorado River Management Plan (National Park Service, 1980). This decision would have phased out motors over a period of several years to enhance the values of the river canyon sanctuary and the unique characteristics of the river adventure (Shelby, 1981). In 1980, Senator Hatch of Utah introduced a rider bill on the appropriations bill for the Department of Interior that overturned the ban on motors. However, the number of user days for non-commercial river runners was expanded to 30 percent. This was accomplished by increasing non-commercial use and not as the result of decreasing commercial use. The total number of people running the Colorado River through Grand Canyon now exceeds 21,000 per year (Cole, 1989).

Even with the increased allocation of trips to non-commercial users, there is currently a waiting list of some 4,000 private river runners. This translates into a six-to-eight-year wait for those individuals who are qualified to run the river on their own. Commercial passengers, on the other hand, can sign up with an outfitter and take the river trip within a year.

Five alternatives are presented to illustrate the complexities of arriving at a equitable management strategy.

## ALTERNATIVE ONE

This first proposal is designed to accommodate all river runners who are interested in a Grand Canyon river trip. This plan would eliminate all restrictions currently imposed on river recreationists. The river corridor would be open to unlimited and unrestricted use. This alternative would appease those citizens who are convinced that our national parks are not sufficiently available for use by the American public. For example, it has been proposed that an aerial tramway be installed from the South Rim of

the Grand Canyon to the Colorado River, and then back to the North Rim. This plan has not been taken seriously, but is consistent with the sentiment that national parks should not be managed to provide wilderness experiences, but rather, to promote access (Bonnicksen, 1983).

up until the mid-1960's this free access to the Colorado River would have been a viable solution because of the relatively small number of river runners (547 in 1965 for example). But river use has increased almost 40-fold since then. Increased visitation would far exceed the physical, biological, and psychological carrying capacity of the Grand Canyon (Nash, 1982).

Limitations on visitation are necessary to protect the unique natural values of the canyon (Nelson, 1983). Direct regulations are necessary in deference to the natural environment and for the purpose of maintaining high quality experiential opportunities for the visitor (McAvoy and Dustin, 1983).

Direct regulation of use, of course, means that not everyone who wants to experience a Grand Canyon river trip will be able to do so within a year. The following alternatives address various allocation strategies and a rationale for each.

## ALTERNATIVE TWO

The second alternative consists of the status quo with an allocation of 70 percent commercial and 30 percent non-commercial use. The current situation clearly favors the outfitter of commercial trips and the general public who do not have the skills necessary to run the river on their own.

The argument in favor of this position is that those who have never floated the Colorado River (most commercial passengers are first-timers) should be given priority access over experienced non-commercial users who may have completed a Grand Canyon trip before. Because a river trip is often a singular experience for commercial participants, their experiences are considered more worthy than those of private users (Linford, 1981). Outfitters argue that they provide a valuable service to the American people as the "doorway to the wilderness" (McGinnis, 1981).

However, it may also be argued that outfitters are interested in the stability of their businesses (Abbey, 1982). To the dismay of private river users, advertisement for commercial trips has the tendency to generate demand for river use already short in supply (Lime, 1981; Cole, 1989). Finally, a six-to-eight-year wait for those individuals who have acquired the knowledge and skills to run the river on their own is absurd.

The following alternatives would have an impact on the commercial businesses as a greater proportion of use is taken by the non-commercial faction. Perhaps the federal government would compensate outfitters for any losses sustained. This would seem fair since the outfitters have historical backing from the park service in their serving of the general public. The details of this compensation would entail considerable deliberation and planning.

**ALTERNATIVE THREE**

In terms of overall fairness it would appear reasonable that allocations should be evenly split between commercial and private river runners. This alternative would allocate 50 percent of use to each faction. The groups are similar in being predominantly urban, white-collar workers with hither-than-average incomes and educational levels (Leatherberry et. al., 1980).

Given these similarities there are also considerable differences between the groups. Based on the theoretical perspective of conflict in outdoor recreation (Jacob and Schreyer, 1980), the conflicts between commercial and non-commercial users stem from differences in their activity style, resource specificity, mode of experience, and lifestyle tolerance of the other group.

Commercial river operators provide a complete service including the experience necessary to navigate the rapids in the canyon. Paying clients, then, are most often inexperienced river runners. Yet the difficulty of Grand Canyon's rapids is well-known. Collins and Nash (1978) note that Lava Falls (one of many major rapids) has a strong claim to being the most difficult stretch of runnable whitewater in the West. This challenge, then, is better suited to experienced river runners. Their orientation to the activity, the resource, and the mode of experience is entirely different from that of the paying commercial customer.

A 50/50 split of river use would ideally include a clause that would decrease on-river conflicts between these diverse groups. Use would be distributed so that a majority of similar trips are on the water at the same time. This strategy is being employed to some degree in that motorized trips are not allowed between September 16 and December 15 each year (Cole, 1989). This is an application of :time-zoning: which facilitates comparable use of a resource at specific designated times (Sharpe, 1983). The strategy could be expanded so that river use by commercial passengers would occur during specific weeks, and river use by non-commercial river runners would occur during alternate period of time. The highly desirable summer months would be equally split to accommodate each group.

## ALTERNATIVE FOUR

A fourth alternative would be to reverse the allocation so that 70 percent of use would be non-commercial and 30 percent of use would be commercial. This alternative would also provide for the removal of motorized rafts in the canyon as was proposed in the 1980 Colorado River Management Plan. Research has shown that 87 percent of river runners familiar with both kinds of trips preferred oars to motors (Shelby, 1981). The 30 percent allocation for commercial use would therefore involve paddle and oar rafts only. The removal of motors would eliminate noise pollution which detracts from the peace and tranquility the canyon offers.

This alternative would clearly impact upon the established historical use of the canyon by commercial operators who offer motorized trips. However, limiting travel to oars and paddle rafts would result in conditions in which the canyon could be experienced within the limits of acceptable impact on the resources (National Park Service, 1980). It would also allow groups in general to experience the canyon without being displaced or rushed by motorized groups (Sax, 1980).

## ALTERNATIVE FIVE

The fifth alternative would allow for 100 percent use by qualified non-commercial users. Commercial river runners would be phased out over a period of several years. This approach would be

defensible in protecting the wilderness experience of the Grand Canyon river user. Ideally a regional management plan would be implemented whereby commercial operators introduce people to river running, inculcate in them a sense of environmental responsibility, and teach necessary skills. This would occur on rivers of lesser difficulty. As river recreationists developed skills they would move on to increasingly difficult rivers, culminating in an opportunity to run the Colorado River through the Grand Canyon (Beck et.a., 1989). This plan recognizes the elements of the particular environment which facilitate goal attainment by specific recreationists (Schreyer et. a., 1984). The Grand Canyon offers those elements required for a wilderness experience, including remoteness and challenge.

Any alternative that encourages tightly scheduled, resort-type vacation experiences is contradictory to the goals desired by wilderness recreationists (Sax, 1980). The regimentation and security of commercial trips is antithetical to the wilderness experience the Colorado River offers (Nash, 1981).

Many of the solutions used for wilderness management in a future high technology scenario (Leitch, 1978) are now being employed at the Grand Canyon. Launches are on specific dates, equipment must be approved, an itinerary must be submitted, environmental and safety stipulations must be met, and a briefing period is required before parties are allowed to launch. This fifth alternative eliminates at least one component in the erosion of wilderness opportunities -- the favored use of the resource by those without the skills to meet the environmental challenge on their own.

Opportunities for solitude, danger, self-sufficiency, and primitiveness have become increasingly rare and coveted. There has been increasing demand for finite wilderness resources. Regulations, of necessity, will continue to be implemented to protect the quality of these resources. Concentrating entirely on non-commercial river users, however, will at least lessen the contradiction inherent in a "controlled wilderness" (Nash, 1981). This approach would allow for the greatest possible contrast between conditions found in civilized environments and those conditions that define a wilderness.

## CONCLUSION

The various alternatives addressed in this paper raise some of the questions which should be considered in developing an equitable management plan for allocating river use. There are strong emotional arguments from both the commercial and non-commercial factions. Some compromise will likely result to serve both these diverse interest groups.

Of paramount importance in developing a new management plan will be consideration of what the resource is best suited for. Management of the Grand Canyon Colorado River may well set a precedent for use of other park and wilderness areas. The planning must be thoughtful and deliberate.

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**PROJECT I.B.I.M.**
**I BELIEVE IN ME**

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ABSTRACT: This paper describes the importance of self-esteem in a variety of settings: Clinical, educational, recreational and personal. It will be an introduction on enhancing one's own self-esteem and introducing project I.B.I.M. (I Believe in me) as an effective tool in assisting clients, students, patients, etc., in enhancing their own self-esteem.

## INTRODUCTION

After working many years in the psychiatric and chemically dependent health care field, it was evident in recurring problem existed. Seldom, however, was the problem directly and aggressively addressed in treatment. The judgment of a person's worth, their 'self-esteem', was generally critical and devaluing. The learned response for gaining attention was acting out.

Since a poor self-esteem seemed to be the base for many psychological disorders; the need for ideas or actual principles that could enhance or develop self-esteem was identified.

The California task-force to promote self-esteem is the impetus of self esteem training nation-wide. Each member of the task force has written articles linking low self-esteem as the common denominator in the target areas of drug and alcohol abuse, child abuse, crime and violence. These studies will serve to point the way for self esteem to become the focus of behavioral science research for the next decade. Our recent literature search uncovers the following significant data:

> 2 out of 3 americans suffer from low self-esteem. (source Self esteem: The New Reformation by Rev. Robert Schuller, Research conducted by George Gallup, Jr., The Gallup Organization, 1985)

Dr. Carl Thoreson, at Stanford University, a leading authority on Type A behavior, relates self-esteem to health problems in the following statement: "Low self-esteem tends to lead to Type A behavior with an increasing drive to prove oneself to others, pervasive hostility, suspicious nature, and being critical of others to overcome insecurity and low self-esteem."

Type A behavior is linked as a major contributor to heart attacks.

John Gilmore (1974) in his studies of adults, found that high self-esteem is associated with high productivity, whether it is exemplified in academic achievement, creativity, or leadership. Low self-esteem is characteristic of the low achiever, the non-creative person, and the followers."

Dorothy Corkille Briggs, in "Celebrate Yourself" is quoted as saying: "How you feel about yourself directly affects how you live life, how you relate to others."

As we look further at the self-esteem issue and the possible interventions that we can use, it is important to realize that the roots of self-esteem are internal and that's where we need to begin. We can use external factors to enhance self-esteem but to develop a strong sense of ones worth - we need to look from within.

PROJECT I.B.I.M.

Project I.B.I.M., I Believe in Me, was created after many months of researching, studying, training and working with clients who demonstrated poor or low self-esteem. it is designed for psychiatric and chemically dependent populations but is also working within the school system and industry with some adaptations. The program is currently being administered by licensed Therapeutic Recreation Specialists social workers, metal health specialists, and teachers. Training seminars and workshops are sporadically held within the state of Utah and some regional presentations have been done in Ohio, Tennessee, Wyoming and Idaho.

The manual includes ten individual modules on subjects pertaining to the enhancement of self-esteem. Subjects that include:

Belief Systems
Negative Thoughts
Positive Affirmations
Feelings
Decision Making
Support Systems
Physical Care
Befriending Yourself
The Real Me
Masks

The approach with clients, students and individuals is described in an old Chinese proverb:

I Hear and I Forget
I See and I Remember
I Do and I Understand

We incorporate the "ACTION" part and the participant learns through the experiential mode instead of the traditional educational approach.

We believe that growth comes from awareness plus action or risk taking. So, in order to grow and develop there needs to be a combination of learning and actions. The modules are designed to accomplish that growth process.

**BELIEF SYSTEMS:**

One's beliefs about oneself are based on their past experiences and the messages they took from them. Dorothy Corkill Briggs, in her book "Celebrate Yourself" states:

> "It is never who you are that hangs you up, but rather who you think you are. How you feel about yourself directly affects how you live life, and how you relate with others."

A person's thoughts about themselves are built upon the reactions of significant others in their lives; how other saw and treated them as a child is the way they began to believe themselves to be. These beliefs may or may not be accurate, but once the belief is formed, the person sees the belief as being accurate, and thus becomes limited in their own abilities to change and grow.

The power of belief systems is strong and influential in the direction a person takes in life - the basis of our self-esteem modules.

## NEGATIVE THOUGHTS AND POSITIVE AFFIRMATIONS:

In our society, there is a tendency to talk about what's not okay, what's not working at home, at work, with the kids, or in a relationship. Most people live in a negative based environment. A person who suffers from low self-esteem discounts compliments that come their way. They have a difficult time acknowledging what's good about them. In order to have high self-esteem person needs to be willing and able to talk positively about oneself and begin to feel comfortable with affirming their skills.

A person's own self-talk can build them up or it can tear them down. Each person has the control within them to adjust the type of talk that takes place in their minds.

## FEELINGS:

A person's feelings are a part of them, they assist in making the person who they really are. An identified need is, a person must take responsibility for their feelings, since their feelings belong to them, and they own those feelings. Often times people allow others to take credit for their positive feelings and look to blame others for their negative feelings. ie:

1. You embarrassed me when we were visiting with the Smith's.
2. You made me feel happy when you cleaned your room.

Modules 3 and 4 are designed to assist the individual in recognizing, acknowledging, and appropriately expressing those feelings.

DECISION MAKING:

Making decisions is greatly affected by the amount of confidence a person has in themselves. By making responsible decisions, enhancement of ones' self-esteem can occur.

Making decisions means possibly making mistakes which everyone does throughout their lives. One's attitude toward mistakes will make a difference in their ability to risk or try again. We focus on three common ' -rriers in the decision-making process in module 5.

1. expectations
2. fear of mistakes
3. peer pressure

SUPPORT SYSTEMS:

A myth about friendship is that one person provides all the support a person needs. The old saying "don't put all your eggs in one basket" holds true when it comes to support systems. A variety of support systems is needed in everyone's life.

Support from friends, family and others is e-sential to well-being. To know that people trust a care, brings a real sense of acceptance. It helps put problems and issues into perspective, gives one a sounding board and helps one to feel like someone is concerned about them as an individual.

Different types of support that a person needs are identified in module 6 and exerc ses are designed around identifying where the holes are in their support needs and how to fill them.

PHYSICAL CARE:

Most people are aware of the advantages of being physically fit; but few seem motivated to begin an exercise program. Being physically fit is more than being strong and fast. Real physical fitness is a combination of flexibility, muscular strength and cardiovascular endurance.

This module is actual t sting to give clients a base line of their present abilities and discussion includes the connection between feeling good physically and feeling good emotionally.

**BEFRIENDING YOURSELF:**

Jan Gault, in "Free Time: Making Your Leisure Count," states:

> When we think of play we think of free time. Within the context of time, leisure is the free part of that space - the space where you have the possibility of choice. It is a time free from obligations, either to yourself or others, a time to do what you alone choose without feeling guilty about it or feeling that you ought to be doing something else.

Having control over one's free time, as well as structured time, is important. When a person feels healthy, strong and relaxed they are more willing to risk, not only in leisure but in all areas of their life. Being able to risk, in turn affects one's feelings of self-worth and overall self-esteem.

**THE REAL ME - MASKS:**

The last two modules are designed for active participation. the schedule is to have the individuals create a plaster mask of their faces and then discuss the "masks" "facades" "defenses" one uses in life and which ones are destructive to the true self.

**CONCLUSION:**

An individual will live life and interact with others through their self perceptions. What Project I.B.I.M. tries to do is to assist an individual in obtaining a positive perception of "I BELIEVE IN ME."

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# THE NEED FOR TRAINED COACHES IN RECREATION SPORTS PROGRAMS

**HAL POTTER**[1]

ABSTRACT: Approximately twenty two million youth participate in sports programs each year in the United States. These youth are coached by three million coaches of varying degrees of understanding of the sport sciences. Recreation Administrators are being pressured by parents, the courts, and their supervisors to improve the quality of the coaching. This paper discusses the need for a coaches training program and introduces the leading program, the American Coaching Effectiveness Program.

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## INTRODUCTION

I have been involved in sports as long as I can remember. As a youth I remember keeping the coach company on the bench in little league. I can still remember the fun and excitement when we won, the hurt when we lost, and the rejection of the bench. In Junior and Senior High School I excelled in distance running and soccer. i continued to play soccer in college, and participated in many intramural sports programs. As an adult I enjoy many sports on a recreational level. Is that the limit to my sports career? No, my oldest son suddenly turned six, and I got a call from someone organizing the little league baseball program he signed up for. They wanted me to coach. I said yes, after all, I know everything about the sport having spent most of my time next to my coach! I was excited, I was ready for the thrill of winning the championship. My son would be able to have a better experience than I had when I was his age. We practiced hard, we had lots of fun; we won a few games, but lost most. I wondered, what went wrong, whey didn't we win the championship?

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Many of the coaches in our youth sports programs may be having a similar experience. They were coerced into coaching because there weren't enough coaches for the teams. They may or may not have played the sport as a youth. They may or may not know the rules of the game. But they are alive and willing to take the time to see that the youth have a chance to play. I know the feeling of an administrator who needs coaches, sometimes you are willing to take anyone who has the time and is willing to coach regardless of their skills.

Al Rosen, who was a third baseman for the Cleveland Indians int he 1950's, tells of when his son joined the little league baseball team. He asked his son: "What do you think, Robbie, if I were to coach your team?" He did coach that season and then wrote a book about coaching youth. In it he said: "My son was right to ask that questions; I knew all about baseball, but I didn't know about teaching kids."

Another coach of a little league team taught his players to slide feet first. This was the only way they were to slide. However, one of his players stole home and dove head first into the catcher, blocking the play. He was safe. The coach congratulated him on the great play. Later another player tried the same thing, only he sustained a serious injury. Was the coach negligent?

An estimated twenty-two million youth participate in sports programs throughout the country. These youth represent our future, yet as research has shown, we are entrusting this precious resource to about three million coaches that have little or no training. Many people associate a successful coach with one that has a winning season, but it takes more than winning to be a success. Today's coach needs to know more than strategies for defense and offense. They need to have teaching skills, a thorough understanding of first aid procedures, understand time management, the legal insight of a lawyer, and the ability to counsel and keep confidences. If coaches were aware of this when they were asked to volunteer, they probably would not coach. So what is the sports administrator to do? The programs must continue in order to provide wholesome recreation for our youth. But where do we find qualified coaches?

There are two solutions to the problem. the first is to continue as some have in the past - that is to find anyone that is willing to coach regardless of skills. We give them the equipment and they are on their own. Programs that operate in this manner will experience some successes; however, there will be teams that will not succeed. They may win games, but will not build character in their athletes. There will also be injuries, maybe even serious injuries. In these cases there could be legal battles that could ruin the program and the agency.

The second solution is to provide the coaches with training. Requiring coaches to go through a training program prior to coaching will assure the program of quality coaches. Training will neither guarantee that all coaches will follow the agencies' goals and objectives for the program, nor will it guarantee there will be no injuries; but it will minimize the problems and provide an avenue for helping coaches progress in their abilities to work with the athletes.

Where can a recreation administrator go to find help in setting up a coaches training program? And what should such a program include? We will answer that second question first - what to include in a coaches training program.

COACHING PHILOSOPHY

The first part of a good coach training program will help the coach develop a proper coaching philosophy. As previously mentioned, a successful coach is more than someone who is interested in winning. Winning needs to be kept in its proper perspective. But "wait a minute", you say, everyone has heard what Vince Lombardi said about winning: "Winning isn't everything - it is the only thing!" That is not what he said, but rather a reporters interpretation of what he said. What Vince actually said was "Winning isn't everything, but striving to win is!" Yes, striving to win is vital to the success of any team. We all want to win, but we do not do it at the expense of the players or the rules.

A survey was conducted of hundreds of coaches asking what their objectives were in coaching. Of the coaches surveyed 80% of them said that the most important objective in coaching is to develop the athletes physically, psychologically, and socially. Another 19% of the coaches said that having fun was the primary objective. Only 1% of the coaches listed winning as their top objective (Martins 1981). Only by having an ingrained coaching philosophy will a coach keep winning in perspective when a game is close and they are playing the team that beat them by one point last time.

Along with determining priorities, understanding the different coaching styles will help to shape overall philosophy of coaching. When we think of coaches, many of us remember the way that we were coached as a youth in school, or we recall the Hollywood portrayals of some famous coaches. We remember the locker room scene at half time where the coach rallies the team and then they go out and win the game. So when we coach, without proper training, we will often resort to the same style of coaching that we remember. There are basically three styles of coaching: the command style, the submissive style, and the cooperative style.

**The Command Style Coach** is the coach that can do no wrong; he is all knowing regarding the sport. Because of this knowledge, it is his role to give orders and the athletes role is to follow and learn. The practices are planned to the minute, and there is no varying from that plan.

**The Submissive Style Coach** is the coach who refuses to take any responsibility for planning, teaching, or decisions. This is the coach that throws out the bat and ball and tells the players to have a good time. There are no planned practices, or season objectives. This lack of planning may be because the coach doesn't have the skills needed to plan, or simply doesn't understand the purpose of planning. This is the baby-sitter type of coach.

**The Cooperative Coach** is the person who shares with the athletes the decision making power. He is not afraid of making decisions and giving direction to the group. He also understands that the players learn more if they have the opportunity to share in the decision making process. Practices have planned objectives and the coach guides the players towards those objectives while they share in the decisions as to what drills they work on.

Which is the right style? Maybe it isn't only one style, maybe it is a combination of several styles. Situations change and different styles are needed. If coaches understand what style they feel comfortable with, it will help them as they set goals and objectives for the program, and understand how to work with the athletes.

SPORT PEDAGOGY

Pedagogy means teaching, and sports pedagogy refers to the science and art of teaching sports skills - not specific skills such as dribbling, throwing, or tumbling, but the process which coaches use to teach all types of skills. Sport pedagogy is the study of how coaches organize for the season, select and sequence the specific skill they teach, provide verbal instructions, demonstrate skills, and give feedback. (martins, 1981)

Coaches may know how to throw a curve ball, or the proper technique used in kicking a soccer ball, but they may not understand how to break the skill down to teach it to the athletes. They may not understand time management in planning a practice, or what their goals and objectives for the season should be. Each of these are learned skills that each coach will need in order to have a successful season.

## SPORT PHYSIOLOGY

Understanding sport physiology is another important step in becoming a qualified coach. These principles will help the coach understand concepts such as the principles of training, interval training, proper nutrition for the athletes, levels of the athlete's development, why athletes respond differently to training, motivation techniques, and much more. The dedicated coach will never stop learning about sport physiology.

Dr. Brian Sharkey, has divided sport physiology into five different parts: sports physiology and the athlete, training for muscular fitness, training for energy fitness, designing training programs, and performance (Sharkey, 1986). Basic to proper training of athletes is the understanding that physical development occurs at various stages, and that each person develops at a different rate. No two athletes develop in the same way or at the same time. Each of these stages have differing needs as far as the length, type, and intensity of training. Table 1 illustrates each of those stages and what types of training is proper for each stage (Sharkey, 1981).

## SPORT LAW

Not to be left out of any quality coaches training program is the area of sport law. Today, more than ever, the need for the coaches to understand their legal responsibilities is shown by the number of court judgments against coaches, administrators, schools, and cities. All coaches and administrators, whether professional or volunteer, have a legal duty to provide proper instruction, proper equipment, and a safe environment in which to play. Every sport has an element of risk involved. Some of these risks are inherent risk or risks that are accepted as part of a particular sport. An example of an inherent risk in baseball is that a player could miss a hit or thrown ball and be hit with it. These risks are acceptable as long as coaches act in a prudent manner and athletes understand and are constantly reminded what the inherent risks for each sport is.

A coach has nine basic legal duties to be aware of, these duties include: providing a safe environment, properly planning the activity, evaluating students for injury or incapacity, matching or equating students, providing adequate and proper equipment, warning of inherent risks in the sport, supervising the activity closely, knowing emergency procedures and first aid, and keeping adequate records (Matrins, 1981). A planned approach to each of these areas will help to make the job of coaching an enjoyable experience rather than a legal nightmare.

Table I

Table 1: Age-Based Training Guidelines

| Growth Stages | Muscular Fitness Methods | Muscular Fitness Time | Energy Fitness Methods | Energy Fitness Time |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Children 6-10 | Use body weights as resistance in general conditioning exercises (chin-ups, push-ups, etc.) Maintain flexibility. | 15 min 3xweek | Team games with few playing restrictions. Emphasize involvement, play, and free expressions. Avoid formal fitness training methods | Under 4 hr/ week |
| Adolescent (early) 11-14 | Use modern resistance and more repetitions (over 10) on weight-training machines to develop endurance. Maintain flexibility. | 30 min 3x/week | Continue to develop fitness through the the use of team games. Improved aerobic ability is the main training goal. Introduce activities involving long, easy-paced intervals. | 4-6 hr /week |
| Adolescent (late) 15-19 | Introduce high-resistance training (under 10 repetitions) and use of free weights to improve strength. | 45 min 3x/week | Increase training intensity. Mix long and short intervals. Train regularly at the anaerobic threshold. | 6-8 hr /week |
| Adult | Advanced muscular fitness training demands depend on specifics of sport specialization. | 1hr 6x/week | Prepare for peak competitive performances by developing a seasonal plan for energy fitness. | Over 8hr /week |

According to Rick Ball, a sports lawyer the only consistent type of litigation that has been successful over the past ten years in sports lawsuits is in the area of failure to warn athletes (ACEP, 1987). A coach must not only teach participants proper

techniques, but must also warn them of the potential injuries that can be sustained without the use of the techniques. The coaching staff must continually remind of the inherent risks involved in sports and warn of the risks involved in proper play.

No coach, administrator, or agency is able to guarantee that their programs will not be involved in a lawsuit. But teaching coaches about their legal duties, will lessen the probability of a suit being filed. With proper planning, supervision, procedures for emergency situations, and record-keeping, the chance of a successful suit is minimized. Having a coaches training program and requiring all coaches to participate prior to the season, is the first step in assuring the courts that you, as an administrator, are aware of your legal duties and that you have a plan to take care of those duties.

## THE AMERICAN COACHING EFFECTIVENESS PROGRAM

With a basic understanding of what a good coaches training program should consist of, we must ask where we can find help to provide such training. As an administrator, you can provide your own training to your coaches, or you can participate in a program that has been developed to do the training. There are several organizations that provide agencies with a program to train coaches. One of the best and most widely-used in the United States and Canada is the American Coaching Effectiveness Program (ACEP). ACEP was developed through the Office of Youth Sports at the University of Illinois by Dr. Rainer Martens in 1976.

The ACEP program is divided into three levels. The first is the Rookie Level. This program is designed for coaches of community sports teams, it is a basic training program to help the coaches understand the sport sciences, including: philosophy, psychology, teaching, first aid, and legal concerns. This three hour clinic uses video tapes, class exercises, and group discussion. Other training can include specific instruction of the specific sport. There is no formal training needed to conduct a Rookie level clinic. Videos and the instruction manual are available for ACEP.

The second level is the Leader Level. This level is designed for the Jr. and Sr. High School Coaches, the community coach that wants more training, and the prospective college coaches. There are two parts to this training. Part one is an eight hour clinic that teaches sport psychology, sport pedagogy, sport physiology, sport management, and sport-specific topics. The second phase is a four hour course on sports medicine. The clinics use video

tapes, coaches work books, class discussion, the text <u>Successful Coaching</u>, and a certification test. The instructor of the leader level clinic must attend an ACEP Leader Training Seminar to receive training in the program.

The third level is the Master Level for High School, College, University, and Professional coaches. This is a series of six separate courses that are available as home study courses or actual classroom instruction obtained at several universities around the United States. The courses include: sport law, time management, sport physiology, sport psychology, teaching sport skill, and sport injuries.

The cost of the materials for the clinics can either be charged to the coaches or t the participants in the programs. Traditionally, programs will include the clinic costs in the registration fees of the participants; therefore, providing training for coaches in their program at no cost. Coaches outside of the sponsoring agency that participate in the clinic are charged a fee for the clinic. The fee can be just enough to cover the cost of the materials of extra, making it a source of revenue to the agency.

## CONCLUSION

Initiating a coaches training program in your agency will not guarantee that all coaches will follow the rules all the time. It will not prevent the coach who thinks that it is the NBA Championship or the World Series every time they have a game. It will not prevent accidents from happening. But it will be a means of weeding out the coaches who are on an ego trip, and it will minimize the accidents or at least provide a plan when one happens.

Providing coaches with a training program will help them develop a philosophy that puts the **Athletes First and Winning Second.** When a coach is faced with the temptation to bend the rules or to compromise his values under pressure, he won't give in if he has a solid philosophy where the athletes development is of prime importance. As an administrator, you know that you are fulfilling your legal responsibility to have trained, qualified coaches working with the athletes. This is a major step in assuring that your agency and it's directors will not have to lose everything in a lawsuit resulting from negligence of one of your coaches.

Even more important than knowing that your program is save is that ability to assure the parents of your athletes that their children are in the care of competent and caring individuals. Coaches that care about developing young people into w ll rounded adults, more than winning the game; coaches that have the ability to teach proper techniques, and to provide a safe environment for the athletes to enjoy the sport. And this, after all, is the very purpose for your agency.

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# MOTIVATIONAL DIFFERENCES FOR PLEASURE TRAVEL ACROSS THE LIFESPAN

**Michael A. Schuett, C. Michael Phelan and Francis A. McGuire[1]**

ABSTRACT: This study is concerned with identifying differences in motivations for individuals taking pleasure trips utilizing a lifespan perspective. Data used to investigate this research were obtained from the 1985 Travel Study conducted in the USA for Tourism Canada. Specifically, one trip type, the outdoor vacation, was examined exploring a lifespan model. Empirically, the data demonstrate that younger travellers are more motivated to seek fun and adventure in this type of vacation. In contrast, middle age to older adults desire spending time with their family and relaxing on outdoor vacations. These results highlight the need to take a careful look at motivations from a lifespan perspective. Furthermore, market researchers and the tourist industry may usefully pay closer attention to these needs in developing promotion strategies.

KEYWORDS: motivation, pleasure vacation, outdoor vacation, lifespan.

## MOTIVATIONAL DIFFERENCES FROM PLEASURE TRAVEL ACROSS THE LIFESPAN

Motivation for taking pleasure trips is only one of numerous variables which have been considered in attempting to understand the complexities of travel behavior (Crompton 1979). Motivation to undertake a pleasure vacation includes those forces which incline individuals to participate in some type of recreational activity during their tourist experience (Pizam, Neuman, and Reichel 1979). Many factors have been used to explain travel motivation including cultural, social environmental, and escapes from "normal routine" (Cohen 1974, 1979; Dichter 1967; MacCannell 1976; Plog 1974; Rubenstein 1980; Smith 1979; Thomas 1964).

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A concept researchers have developed in order to explain travel behavior include "push" and "pull" motives (Dann 1977). "Push" motives include numerous sociopsychological factors that "push" an individual away from his ordinary day to day existence in order that one can experience social interaction, exploration and relaxation. "Pull" motives are closely related to the destination and include climate, historical sights (Williams and Zelinsky 1970) and novelty (bello and Etzel 1985).

Understanding tourist motivation is a key consideration for travel and leisure researchers (Pearce and Caltabiano 1983). One variable which has been recognized as contributing to an understanding of leisure behavior is lifespan stage. Osgood and Howe (1978: 177) in their developmental view of leisure stated that researchers must focus on the "changing patterns of role involvement over the lifespan" in order to obtain a more concrete understanding of leisure. Previous research has examined life as a dynamic system marked by evolution and development rather than a static system typified by stability and permanence (Erickson 1950, 1968; Gould 1975; Havighurst and Feigenbaum 1968; Levinson 1978). Researchers have used a lifespan perspective to examine a variety of leisure related topics, including socialization (Kleiber and Kelly, 1980), activity choice (Kelly, 1974, 1975, 1978; McGuire and Dottavio, 1986-87; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975), lifelong learning of activities (McGuire, Dottavio, and O'Leary, 1987) and constraints (McGuire, Dottavio and O'Leary, 1986).

The purpose of this exploratory study is to identify differences and similarities in motivations for pleasure travel across the lifespan. While chronological age will be used as the framework to examine differences across the life course, the concern is not with age per se but how age, as an index, is related to the development of behavior. Although age does not cause anything, it is the context within which development occurs (Birren, Kenny, Schaie and Woodruff 1981). Gould views the process of development as a continual one marked by distinct needs during the various lifespan stages. Individuals within age cohorts are seen as sharing common needs and desires (Gould 1975). This study will examine whether they also share motivations for travel.

## METHOD

The data used in this study were part of the 1985 Travel Study conducted by Tourism Canada. This study was commissioned by the Canadian government to collect information about the perceptions and preferences of pleasure travellers within the United State. A multistage area probability design was used to select participants. A sequential probability plan by quota, sampled area segments, housing units and eligible consumers within households. Three levels of urbanization (central cities, suburbs and non-metropolitan) were represented. Americans who were at least 16 years of age and had made at least one pleasure trip in the 36 months preceding the study were eligible for inclusion in this study. A total of 9,033 in-home personal interviews were conducted during September and October of 1985.

Respondents were asked to indicate which of seven types of trips they had taken in the year preceding the study. The vacation choices were: resort vacation; theme park, exhibition or special event; city trip; outdoor vacation; close-to-home leisure trip; cruise and touring vacation. The authors decided to limit data analysis in this study to one trip category in order to eliminate the confounding influence of trip type on the findings. Individuals whose last trip was an outdoors vacation (n=1,016) or who had planned to take one within the two years following the study (n=173) were selected for inclusion due to the interest in the outdoors in society today (President's Commission on Americans Outdoors, 1986). According to the survey instrument, outdoor vacation is defined as a "trip that occurs in a natural setting when there are a variety of activities such as camping, hiking, fishing or rafting taking place."

Individuals were asked to rate the importance of 17 motivations on a four point Likert-type scale from "very important" (1) to "not at all important" (4) in taking their outdoor vacation. The respondents were grouped by age and divided into seven age groups using Gould's (1975) model. This model is supported by empirical evidence and based on the total life cycle and human development. The groups included in Gould's model were: 1) ages 18-21; 2) ages 22-28; 3) ages 29-34; 4) ages 35-43; 5) ages 44-50; and 6) ages 51-60. Gould's (1975) sample did not include individuals 61 years of age and over. Therefore, to avoid arbitrary groupings those aged 60 and over were eliminated from the study. Also the youngest group was eliminated since the survey

included a 36 month recall period for previous vacations. The number of respondents that remained totaled 990.

Frequencies were tabulated for each of the 17 motivations and examined for all the respondents. Factor analysis (principal components, VARIMAX rotation) was used to identify any underlying structures that existed within the motivations. The reliability of each factor was established by computing Cronbach's alpha. Factors with reliabilities above .50 were retained for further analysis based ont he recommendation of Thorndike and Hagen (1977). One way analysis of variance was performed in order to determine if any age related differences existed in the importance of each motivation factor. Post hoc tests were then carried out to further examine the results of the ANOVA by identifying specific differences between age groups on each factor.

**RESULTS**

Examination of the frequencies reveal some general tendencies for all age groups. The percentage of respondents within each age group who identified each motivation as "very important" is listed in Table 1. The data for travellers aged 18-21 and 22-28 indicated **spending time with someone special** was rated the most important. Those in the middle aged groups 29-34, 35-43 and oldest group aged 51-60 rated **being together as a family** as the most important. Individuals in the 44-50 age group identified **getting away from pressures and responsibilities** as the most important reason for taking an outdoor trip.

Factor analysis (principal components, VARIMAX rotation) was then utilized to determine whether the 17 motivational statements could be reduced to broader motivation factors. Factor loadings above (.40) were used to place motivations in the appropriate factor (Harman 1967) If a motivation had a loading above .40 on more than one factor, it was placed into the factor for which it had the highest loading. Five factors emerged from the 17 motivations. The reliability of each factor was above the minimum acceptable level (.50). One motivation, however, was eliminated due to its low factor loading and poor fit. Factor 1 was labeled the **"social/prestige"** group; Factor 2 the **"family oriented"** group; Factor 3 the **"fun-seekers"**; Factor 4 the **"health conscious"** group; and Factor 5 the **"escape"** group.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS IDENTIFYING EACH MOTIVATION AS "VERY IMPORTANT"

| Motivation | Age Groups | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 18-21 | 22-28 | 29-34 | 35-43 | 44-50 | 51-60 |
| Spending time with someone special | 62.1 | 67.2 | 70.5 | 69.4 | 72.4 | 62.3 |
| Experiencing the simpler lifestyle | 34.5 | 39.8 | 40.8 | 47.8 | 52.3 | 46.5 |
| Being together as a family | 44.2 | 59.8 | 71.6 | 71.2 | 72.1 | 68.4 |
| Going places many people haven't seen | 32.6 | 26.[illegible] | 19.4 | 30.1 | 26.7 | 21.9 |
| Talking about the trip after I return home | 29.1 | 20.1 | 17.9 | 26.5 | 31.0 | 21.9 |
| Getting away from pressures and responsibilities | 59.8 | 65.9 | 68.8 | 79.5 | 78.2 | 62.6 |
| Travelling to places where I feel safe and secure | 32.6 | 36.4 | 35.9 | 39.1 | 46.0 | 40.0 |
| Being physically active | 60.9 | 53.1 | 45.7 | 52.2 | 50.0 | 43.4 |
| Having fun, being entertained | 61.6 | 54.8 | 49.8 | 50.3 | 40.2 | 37.4 |
| Having lots of different things to see and do | 47.1 | 44.8 | 37.7 | 42.7 | 42.5 | 33.9 |
| Visiting friends and relatives | 30.2 | 32.6 | 31.4 | 25.5 | 27.6 | 37.4 |
| Visiting places my family came from | 15.1 | 12.0 | 15.6 | 14.8 | 16.3 | 22.1 |
| Becoming more healthy and fit | 45.3 | 37.6 | 32.2 | 40.8 | 43.5 | 34.2 |
| Just resting and relaxing | 55.8 | 62.1 | 65.2 | 71.2 | 64.4 | 58.8 |
| Fulfilling a dream of visiting a place I always wanted to visit | 38.4 | 25.1 | 22.5 | 25.0 | 22.1 | 28.3 |
| Finding thrills and excitement | 40.2 | 30.4 | 22.0 | 23.2 | 20.9 | 16.7 |
| Meeting people of similar interests | 27.9 | 23.9 | 19.5 | 25.5 | 29.1 | 28.1 |

The "social/prestige" factor included the following motivations: Fulfilling a dre˙m of visiting a place I ve always wanted to visit; Going places many people have not seen; Talking about the trip after I return home; Meeting people of similar interests. The "family oriented" factor included: Visiting friends and family; Visiting places my family came from; Being together as a family; Spending time with someone special. The "fun-seekers" included: Having fun, being entertained; Finding thrills and excitement; Ha. ıg lots of different things to see and do. The next factor, the "health-conscious" group included: Being physically active; Becoming more healthy and fit; Experiencing the simpler lifestyle. The last factor, the "escape" group included: Just resting and relaxing; Getting away from pressures and responsibilities.

TABLE 2

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

| | FACTOR 1 | FACTOR 2 | FACTOR 3 | FACTOR 4 | FACTOR 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| FULFIL DREAM | .69849 | | | | |
| GO PLACES | .69587 | | | | |
| TALK TRIP | .64598 | | | | |
| MEET PEOPLE | .50245 | | | | |
| VISIT FRIENDS | | .73291 | | | |
| VISIT PLACES | | .70566 | | | |
| TOGETHER FAMILY | | .69167 | | | |
| SPEND TIME | | .59045 | | | |
| HAVE FUN | | | .82732 | | |
| DIFFERENT THINGS | | | .67289 | | |
| FIND THRILLS | | | .59492 | | |
| PHYS ACTIVITY | | | | .78367 | |
| HEALTH & FITNESS | | | | .71675 | |
| SIMPLER LIFE | | | | .58936 | |
| REST & RELAXATION | | | | | .69804 |
| GET AWAY | | | | | .69622 |
| Factor Item Means | 2.3577 | 2.0871 | 1.9383 | 1.8276 | 1.6582 |
| Cronbach's alpha (* signif > .50) | .679* | .671* | .675* | .591* | .501* |

(4 = not at all important, 1 = very important)

**TABLE 3**
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE**
**ON FACTOR SCORES BY AGE GROUPS**

| Factors | A 18-21 | B 22-28 | C 29-34 | D 35-43 | E 44-50 | F 51-60 | p | F-Ratio | Signif. Group Diff. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | AGE GROUPS | | | | | | | | |
| "Social/ Prestige" | 2.215 | 2.268 | 2.336 | 2.354 | 2.386 | 2.473 | .0580* | 2.145 | C<A,E |
| "Family Oriented" | 2.238 | 2.0[illegible]9 | 2.040 | 2.112 | 2.038 | 2.009 | .2667 | 1.288 | ----- |
| "Fun Seekers" | 1.721 | 1.835 | 2.018 | 1.991 | 2.120 | 2.202 | .0000* | 7.436 | F<C,D B>C,E,F A>C,D,E,F |
| "Health Conscious" | 1.748 | 1.769 | 1.902 | 1.769 | 1.722 | 1.892 | .0469* | 2.257 | E>C |
| "Escape" | 1.535 | 1.450 | 1.439 | 1.361 | 1.391 | 1.518 | .1644 | 1.575 | ----- |

Note: * Significance was tested at ($p<.05$) with Duncan's multiple range test.

(4 = not at all important, 1 = very important)

The one-way ANOVA yielded several significant differences between factors and each age group utilizing Duncan's multiple range test (see Table 3). The social/prestige factor did approach conventional levels of significance. This factor was less important to the 29-34 age group than to the youngest group 18-21 years old. The fun-seekers group was much more complex with numerous age related differences. The data for the youngest groups, 18-21 and 22-28 years old point out that this factor was more important to the 18-21 year olds, than to the rest of the age groups. Within the health-conscious factor, the data reveal that this factor was less significant for the 29-34 year olds than to the 44-50 year olds.

## DISCUSSION

The results of this study support Rapoport and Rapoport's (1975) findings that leisure differences do exist across the lifespan. The findings have clear implications for individuals involved in packaging and marketing outdoor vacations. The data provide empirical support to aid researchers and tourism promoters in segmenting travel markets according to a lifespan approach. Five factors were identified that suggest numerous motivational differences across the lifespan. Instead of looking at simple demographics such as age, leisure time behavior should be examined in a more comprehensive perspective (Iso-Ahola 1980). As Kelly (1974, 1975, 1978) has pointed out, different activities can in fact have different meaning for individuals at various points in the lifespan. Overall, the younger age groups reveal more of a liking to have fun and excitement than middle-aged individuals. Middle age groups appear more health conscious than the youngest age group. The middle age groups also desire getting away from it all and going places they have always wanted to visit.

This information can aid market researchers with a more complete profile of the consumer when included with other behavioristic approaches for pleasure travel motivation. For example, these data suggest the younger respondents are more concerned with the fun and excitement they can have on an outdoor vacation; whereas the middle age group is more health conscious. On a practical level commercial recreation managers and outfitters who promote outdoor vacation trips may need to put more emphasis on family and fitness for the middle and older age groups by offering more activities that meet these needs. Resource managers who are interested in attracting a younger age group may need to put more emphasis ont he fun and excitement that can be experienced

on an outdoor trip. Market researchers, commercial recreation and tourism managers must consider changes in leisure choices and motivations in a developmental way to better comprehend the dynamic nature of leisure time behavior, particularly on such a widely chosen activity as an outdoor vacation.

These factors suggest opportunities for developing promotional strategies that will not only add to traditional demographic and socio-economic profiles i.e. age, income, but aid in choosing target markets according to the social-psychological needs of the consumer. This in turn will also allow for more appropriate media for advertising in the future.

The life cycle approach to looking at leisure and more specifically, pleasure vacations can be a useful one. The transient nature of leisure should be considered in tourism marketing decisions. The importance lies int he fact that similar needs and activities are experienced during certain phases of one's life and that similarities do exist long the age continuum (Gould 1975). These needs do shift and adjust in using the lifespan approach because leisure is considered an "evolving" process. Further research must continue in regard to clarifying the meaning of motivations and their change throughout the lifespan. Longitudinal studies should also be initiated to determine how the value of pleasure vacations can change over the lifespan.

# YOU CAN'T ASK THAT!

## ILLEGAL AND INAPPROPRIATE QUESTIONS FOR PRE-EMPLOYMENT INTERVIEWS

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The pre-employment interview is a very special time -- not unlike the high school prom. The underlying function involves a matching process; the objective is to find an employee whose knowledge, skills, abilities, and motivation most cl ly match those required by the job. As with the prom, the various steps need to be carefully rehearsed and planned in advance. The purpose of this article is to keep you (and your agency) from being a failure at the mating dance, to help you sound and look your best to make a good impression, and, not incidentally, to keep you out of court -- an event which would certainly cast a pall over even the most successful [illegible] night affair. There are, of cor se, other comparisons which can be drawn between the Big Date and the interview process: both are occasions when you may not want the other person to see you as you really are, both tend to cause one to have to go to the bathroom at inappropriate times -- but before we draw this analogy into absurdum perhaps we should move on.

The interview process should begin well <u>before</u> the candidate walks into the office. This is not just a get-acquainted session. There is a direct correlation between successful interviews and the amount of substantive thought, planning, and systematic analysis which precedes the interview.

The first step of this analytical planning process is to determine those qualifications which are directly related to job performance -- bona fide occupational qualifications. BFQQ's are not wish lists or the description of the supervisor's vision of the perfect candidate. They should not reflect historic stereotypes which have no current validity; they must be grounded in a realistic job analysis which has determined that each requirement is directly related to the job.

For example, if you are hiring a recreation leader who will be working in a neighborhood where Spanish is the predominant language, it may be appropriate to require fluency in Spanish as a

prerequisite to hiring. It would not be appropriate, however, to specify that the candidate had to be Hispanic. Does it matter how the individual learned Spanish? Is ethnicity the issue or is it competency in the language? Similarly, if a supervisor is required to travel from one location to another as a part of her job, is a valid driver's license a BFQQ? What if she is visually impaired but can get from location A to location B by using public transportation? Suppose the state park system administrator has done an informal survey and has observed that visitors respond more readily to directions given by male rangers. Does this justify a search for men for these positions? Must Disney Corporation advertise for both men and women when filling the position of Snow White?

If there is a challenge to a job requirement, the courts will eventually determine whether the questionable criteria constitute BFQQ's. Generally, the decisions interpret a BFQQ very narrowly. Historic stereotypes are not valid reasons for an employer to discriminate; the airlines used to say that business travelers (presumably all male) like to be served by female stewardesses, and that this preference justified their sexism in hiring. As you can tell by the number of male flight attendants today, the courts didn't accept this explanation. Inconvenience is not a good reason to discriminate on the basis of sex. The networks used to believe that only male sportscasters could cover the post-game celebration because it was frequently centered in the locker room area - outside the locker room - and the champagne flows down the sweaty faces just as freely in these locations. Validity of the character, however, has been accepted as an appropriate BFQQ. When Disney hires someone to play the part of Snow White, the corporation can specify a female.

The bottom line with regard to bona fide occupational qualifications is that each requirement must be related to job performance. This presumes that the hiring agency has looked carefully at the job and knows exactly what the duties and responsibilities are. This way the agency will be able to avoid costly lawsuits brought about by charges of discrimination.

It is also important to point out that as an interviewer, you don't want to elicit information which does not relate to a bona fide occupational qualification. Why? Because if you inadvertently find out that the candidate is a tofu-eating Clydsdale believer, you may then open yourself and your agency to a charge of discrimination. "If

only," the candidate says, "I had been a vegetarian Presbyterian, she would have hired me on the spot." Even if this accusation is unfounded, you may have to defend these charges.

The application process and initial round of screening comes after the job analysis. Again, the formal application form should not ask for any information which is not relevant for the job. For example, do not ask candidates to attach photographs of themselves if you are hiring a travel coordinator for the senior citizens' program. There is no conceivable reason why you would need to see this photograph, and if one is available you have subjected yourself to a charge that you discriminated on the basis of race. Could they be misinterpreted? If you ask the candidate to "List all organizations to which you belong" might he include organizations which indicate particular religious preferences or political beliefs? Suppose he includes the Knights of Columbus and the Ku Klux Klan. Do you really want to know this information? If you want to know if the candidate has been active in professional organizations, ask the question in such a way as to elicit this information.

Now that we have screened out applicants who do not have the necessary experience, education, or skills, we can move to the next phase of the hiring process -- the selection interview. Again it is to the organization's advantage to plan and structure the experience. Each candidate deserves (and legally must receive) equal consideration. Incidentally, many agencies fail in this regard when they interview "internal" candidates and presume that since everyone knows Good Ol' Joe, "we don't have to go through the same process with him." Both Good Ol' Joe and the other candidate may have a legitimate claim against you for discriminatory treatment.

There are many details which need attention for a successful interview. Some are obvious, but often overlooked: find a quiet room, cancel your phone calls, familiarize yourself with the benefits program, review the applicants' resumes, and so forth. Other important aspects of the interview may not be as obvious. You must plan your interviews. The interview is a two-way communication process. The overall objective is to give and receive information which will enable job applicants and employers to determine whether they are suited for each other. If you set out to dazzle the candidate with your innovative programs, she may be very disappointed when she finds that she won't be working in any of these areas. If you talk all of the time, you won't elicit much

information from the candidate. If you "sidetrack" the candidate when you discover that you share a common interest in collecting photographs of elephants, her time with you will be consumed before you are able to determine her qualifications for the job. Most importantly, you must structure your questions so they reflect only bona fide occupational qualifications for the specific job being filled.

Most parks and recreation personnel do not set out to discriminate in the hiring process. Nevertheless, (perhaps because we are such a gregarious bunch), we frequently include questions which might appear to be the basis for discriminatory treatment. In order to avoid any interview questions which could be challenged, the interviewer should refrain from asking questions in the following areas:

Race, National Origin, Religion, and Politics

Any inquiry into a candidate's lineage, ancestry, national origin, birthplace, or "mother tongue" is inappropriate. You may ask if the applicant reads, speaks, or writes another language fluently. You may ask about professional affiliations. You may not ask about religious practices, political activity, or the origin of the candidate's surname. Examples of questions to be avoided:

> Is Spanish spoken in your home?
> That's an interesting name. Is it Italian?
> Were you born in the United States?

Sex

The sex of an applicant will normally be obvious when he/she comes in for the interview; the biases of the interviewer should not be obvious. Questions which indicate that the interviewer believes that the candidate is either especially well qualified for the job or not qualified for the job based upon his/her sex are inappropriate. Neither women nor men should be asked any questions that would show preconceived ideas about job "roles". Men should not be asked how their wife feels about their decision to go back to work. Women should not be asked how they feel about supervising laborers of the opposite sex. No candidate should be asked about his/her child care arrangements. When you are interviewing candidates for positions which require physical challenges, your responsibility is to make them aware of the requirements and allow each individual to

determine whether he or she is able to do the job satisfactorily. Examples or questions to be avoided:

Do you think you would have problems working as a laborer on an all-male trail maintenance crew?
Has anyone told you that they think it's strange for you to interview for a secretarial position? Why are you interested in this kind of work?
Do you have a baby sitter lined up?
Have you had any problems in the past working in an office full of women?

Personal Information

Information about the applicant's marital status, the ages and number of children, any questions concerning pregnancy, names and addresses of any relative, or questions about personal financial status or credit ratings are not lawful inquiries. Interrogations which cause candidates to divulge handicaps or health conditions which do not relate reasonably to fitness to perform the job are unlawful. Examples of these illegal questions follow:

Has your weight ever slowed you down on the job?
Do you think you can pay your bills on this salary?
What does your husband do?
How old are your children?
Do you own your own home?

Age

Stereotypes about older or younger persons are not relevant, and should not form the basis for a hiring decision. Age does not in itself, mean more or less physical or mental ability. If the position has a minimum age requirement, a legitimate question would be "If hired, can you furnish proof of age?" or a statement that the hiring is subject to verification of age. Illegal questions in this area include:

Do you feel you could keep up with the youngsters?
Do you think you could supervise employees who are much older than you?

Education

While it is appropriate to focus on job-related education, there is always a temptation to place too much emphasis on education which ha. no bearing on work performance. A candidate who is interviewing for a position which would involve collecting fees at the entrance gate does not need a master's degree in resource management. Inappropriate questions relating to education would include those which ask specifically the nationality, racial or religious affiliation of a school.

The laws relating to nondiscrimination, affirmative action, and equal opportunity employment are not unreasonable or irrational. In fact, they mirror the fundamental principles of our profession; recreation programs have always provided the "even playing field" which provides individuals the opportunity to prove themselves based on their own merit.

If you are in doubt about questions for an interview, remember to ask only those questions which help you objectively evaluate a candidate's ability to perform the job. Your personnel officer and state and local fair employment practices agencies have further guidelines and checklists which you might find helpful.

# MANAGEMENT MATTERS--
# NEW AGE MOTIVATION STRATEGIES
# TO ENHANCE EMPLOYEE POTENTIAL

Andréa Philips[1]

Abstract.--Studies have shown that although no one likes to be underpaid, money itself is not a major source of job satisfaction. This paper explores the influence of meaningful work, powerful training, and holistic motivation strategies to enhance employee potential.

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It seems as if it is human nature to appreciate the good things in life when they are new to us and then to, slowly but surely, take them for granted as we become accustomed to their presence in our lives. Think of the child who receives a new toy. For the first several moments, hours, or maybe even days, the toy is treated with love and respect. But then as time passes, the toy becomes "less special" as the child becomes used to its presence. Although the toy is no different than when the child first received it, the child has come to take its presence for granted and thus gives it less time and energy.

And so it is that managers find themselves doing this very same thing with their own employees. When first hired, employees are usually given time, energy, and training. Then suddenly, with no further adieu, employees are left on their own to do whatever job they were hired for. As time passes, many employees feel as if they are being taken for granted, as if they no longer matter.

We in the profession of recreation and leisure services strive to provide experiences which have the power to enhance the quality of life for our constituents. Sometimes though, we forget to practice what we preach with our very own employees. Out intent is often stronger than our actions. In most cases ours is not a highly paid profession. Fortunately, studies have shown that although no one

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likes to be underpaid, money itself is not a major source of job satisfaction (Mernit, 1988). The gratification then, must come from somewhere beyond the paycheck. The rewards also need to come from the doing. We are inspired to "do" when we feel as if we matter.

## Meaningful Work

Samuel Butler in "The Way of All Flesh" (in Britton and Stallings, 1986) stated that, "Every man's work, whether it be literature or music, or pictures, or architecture, or anything else, is always a portrait of himself." If this is so, when one's work seems dull or degrading, the employee might feel frustrated and unfulfilled by his work, and low productivity could easily result. On the other hand, worthy work which is done well and which meets the employee's needs can result in a satisfactory reflection of self. This is likely to produce a feeling of self-confidence as well as efficient work. Each person has a basic need for accomplishment which demands work with personal meaning (Britton and Stallings, 1986).

On of the primary challenges of the employer is to arrange things such that work itself becomes an intrinsically potent motivator. In order to do this, three elements of work and the worker must be present: Desirability, do-ability, and allow-ability (Quick, 1987). Work must be desirable to employees in terms of encouraging employees to achieve personal goals; employees must feel capable of doing the work, and they must be allowed to do their work with as much freedom as possible. This climate for meaningful work can be successfully created through the initial staff training.

## The Trainable Moment

When striving to create a favorable impression upon others, we find ourselves concerned with "creating the proper atmosphere" or "setting the stage." We have heard it said that firs impressions last longest and. . . they do. The way that employees perceive their training influences all levels of future performance. If training is deliberate and well thought out then this will be reflected in the employees' enthusiasm and self-confidence. If though, training is haphazard and incomplete then this too will be apparent as employees are unprepared and anxious about beginning their new job. Remember, training is an extension of the agency's philosophy and its level of commitment.

Training involves learning on the part of the employee -- in fact that's what it's all about. An employer, should honor employee predispositions and differences. There are then, certain considerations about learning in terms of employee training:

1 - Learning/training sometimes involves changing comfortable well established attitudes, beliefs, and skills. Out of consideration of the employees' integrity, be gentle.

2 - Learning/training can best be accomplished through a variety of techniques. A change of pace or focus provides balance and diversity and can alleviate boredom and monotony.

3 - Learning/training should challenge and involve trainees in the process. Although we all don't learn best by doing, experiential learning is a valuable complement to traditional methods. Learning in action reinforces concepts and gives trainees responsibility.

4 - People learn different things at different rates. Avoid catering to the lowest common denominator; as this will cause boredom for those who catch on more quickly. Avoid focusing most of your energy on those who accelerate through the training. This will cause frustration and feelings of inadequacy in others. Provide a variety of choices for learning.

5 - Successful, pleasant experiences facilitate, enhance, and reinforce learning. Strive to create spirit, energy, and enthusiasm. Avoid competition and encourage cooperation among employees.

Training <u>does</u> make a difference. Perhaps it would be wise for managers to incorporate the Golden Rule of Training: Train unto others exactly the way you would like to be trained. Provide a training agenda. Let the employees know what will be happening during their training. Strive for continuity and diversity. Provide for the balance between boredom and anxiety.

Allow the employees to evaluate the training process. Their insight can be a significant force in enhancing future training sessions. The effective manager understands and utilizes employee input for the maximum benefit to all.

Training should not be a one-shot deal; it should be on-going for the sake of both managers and their employees. Continuous training keeps skills, energy, and enthusiasm high. Effective training, in and of itself though, is not enough.

Motivation Matters

Napoleon once said (in Britton and Stallings, 1986), "An army's effectiveness depends on its size, training, experience, and morale. . . and morale is worth more than all the others combined." This can indeed be true, but the importance of morale is sometimes overstated. In fact, there are many managers, and probably even more workers, who believe that morale is the magic mortar with which we build strong motivation. While morale is most certainly an asset, magic it is not. Perhaps it is more realistic to say that maintaining a high level of morale is but one of many powerful personnel motivators. There are other humanistic motivation strategies which can contribute to a positive, productive work environment:

1 - Esteem

The majority of workers are willing to work hard if they feel that the effort and energy they invest are noticed by their employer and co-workers. Low esteem, probably more than any other factor, lowers productivity (Britton and Stallings, 1986). Esteem must be deeply felt, intimately and subtly conveyed, and given deeply and generously to employees.

There are at least three important elements which can be used to unleash the power of esteem. The first of these is prestige, which indicates admiration and respect. Prestige is integral to overall esteem and is demonstrated by the way that people treat others. Competence is another important aspect of esteem. Competence is the simple mastery (or at least adequacy) in the performance of tasks that

pertain either to a specific job or to life in general. As an employer helps to increase employee competence, the employees' self-worth and sense of esteem should be strengthened. The third component of esteem, they need to feel as if they make a difference, and can exert influence over their own destinies.

2 - Consider Emotion as Well as Intellect

Although we like to appear to be led by reason and logic, we are also strongly influenced by emotion. It is difficult to motivate unless you involve the heart right along with the mind. In order to appeal to the heart as well as the mind, the employer should display his own emotions and feelings when appropriate. If and employer is able to tap the employees' beliefs and enthusiasm, there is almost unlimited potential for both personal and organizational success. The sensitive employer will allow work to be a place where spontaneity and humor occur, where ideas begin to unfold. Although it is important to be emotionally involved with one's employees, it is also imperative to keep some distance. This closeness-yet-distance paradox helps keep things in perspective.

3 - Praise and Reward

While praise is widely recognized as important to motivation, the principles which make praise successful remain somewhat obscured. Nearly all people seem to have a strong desire for praise, however, what matters is praise that the recipient feels has been earned. When used effectively, praise can enhance an employee's self-confidence.

4 - Serve

In order to increase employee motivation, one of the best things an employer can do is to make it clear to subordinates that problem solving guidance will be given to them in a non-manipulative way. An employer who is not a dictator but rather who establishes a reciprocal relationship with the employees will surely reap the benefits of the

employees' trust and confidence. Effective leaders have always been those who are adept at serving the needs of their followers without letting the followers take advantage of them.

## Some Final Thoughts

Kahlil Gibran wrote of work in his classic book, The Prophet (1923), "You work that you may keep ace with the earth and the soul of the earth." Work has the power to lend integrity and balance to one's life. Work has the potential to cause tremendous frustration and even despair. While it is true that choosing to work, as pursuits of self-satisfaction have increased, the relative power of money has become less significant. People now strive to find work that is meaningful in contributing to their sense of self. Employers can enhance employee potential through the use of holistic training techniques and humanistic motivational strategies. Perhaps then, work will indeed contribute to one's self-actualization and personal autonomy. For as Kahlil Gibran so wisely noted, "And in keeping yourself with labour you are in truth loving life, And to love life through labour is to be intimate with life's inmost secret."

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# A LOOK AT A PROGRAM TO INCREASE WRITING COMPETENCIES AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH

Raymond A. Moore[1]

An often heard criticism of college graduates these days, including students in recreation, is that they are severely lacking in necessary written communication skills. In addition, practitioners are often critical of theoretical research indicating it is not applicable or it is unrealistic.

There is a natural inclination for most people to look upon recreation as a non-academic major, an attitude that is reinforced when graduates of recreation programs lack the necessary skills in written communication and/or interpretation of research.

Until recently, most academic departments have relied on the undergraduate general education requirements to provide necessary training in writing skills and the interpretation of written documents. The public demand for a better quality education for students has forced many to take a new look at their requirements for students earning degrees in recreation.

A notable program that is attempting to rectify both problems is the two term course at California Polytechnic State University known as Senior project, which required for all students graduating the institution. This two term class involves the selection and completion of a project under faculty supervision. Projects selected are typical of problems which graduates must solve in their field of employment. The project is patterned after the Master's Degree thesis model with the first three chapters being completed during the first quarter and the final two chapters being completed during the second quarter.

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Expected general outcomes include the:

1. Ability to reduce a general problem to specific points of analysis.

2. Ability to organize points of analysis into a logical sequence.

3. Ability to estimate hours of labor and cost of materials necessary to complete a project.

4. Ability to apply competencies acquired in other courses to the successful completion of a specific project.

5. Ability to obtain information necessary to the solution of a problem by library study, experimentation, and/or correspondence and personal contact with practitioners in the field.

6. Ability to follow a work outline without overlooking any major point or significant details.

7. Recognition of the fact that completion of a project on a schedule is an essential element of successful work.

8. Ability to organize, illustrate and write a clear, concise and correct report of the investigation.

9. Ability to work for a supervisor who desires quality performance with a minimum of supervision.

The final report is written in the American Psychological Association format using the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (3rd Ed.) as the text for the course.

Students are required to attend a scheduled first meeting during the term prior to actually enrolling in the course. During this meeting the student is asked to turn in a card indicating their proposed topic. Based on this information and on individual faculty member's work load's, each student is assigned a faculty advisor. Whenever possible students are assigned to advisors according to their concentration and the topic the student has selected. The student must then discuss with their advisor the proposed topic and get final approval

from the advisor to proceed with the study. The student has the responsibility to contact the advisor by the end of the first week of the quarter and submit a rough draft of a contract which spells out the title of the project, statement of the problem, procedural outline to be followed, research methods to be utilized, and five references to be used in the final report. This draft of the contract is discussed with the advisor and revisions are made. After the student receives approval of the draft they then must prepare two final copies of the contract which must be signed and dated by both the student and the advisor.

It is recommended that students consider several questions when selecting a topic, samples of such questions include:

1. Do I have sufficient personal interest to pursue this topic to completion?

2. Is this topic appropriate in scope (not too broad or to narrow) and does it offer enough challenge to be considered for a senior project?

3. Can this topic be completed in the time allotted?

4. Is sufficient reference material available? (Extensive borrowing from other libraries is discouraged because it requires too much time.)

5. Will this topic provide the student with new knowledge and the ability to conduct field research and action-based demonstration projects?

6. Will the researching of this topic be of use to me after graduation? How?

7. Will the results of this study make a contribution to the field of Recreat on?

Any research involving letters, questionnaires, interview schedules or testing of human subjects must be approved by the adviser before being administered. A copy of each item must be given to the advisor and one must be included in the appendices of the project. A mailing list of persons being contacted must be given to the advisor and approved by same prior to any such contacts.

Grading is based on a point system. Common due dates are established for all students. The department has established a schedule for point deductions as well as for the project itself. Five points are deducted if a section is late, or for missing non-cancelled appointments with advisor and for untyped sections. Failure to meet these due dates results in a lowering of earned points. A letter grade is given based on points accumulated and is submitted by the advisor each term. No incompletes are given.

The point distribution for first term is:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Contract | 5 points |
| 2. Introduction | 25 points |
| 3. Review of Literature | 25 points |
| 4. Procedure | 25 points |
| 5. Revised Project | 20 points |
| Total points | 100 |

The point distribution for Second term is:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1. Presentation and analysis of data | 30 points |
| 2. Summary Conclusions and recommendations | 25 points |
| 3. Abstract | 10 points |
| 4. Final Draft | 20 points |
| 5. Final Copy | 15 points |
| Total points | 100 |

Points are translated into grades on a scale of:

| | |
|---|---|
| 90-100 | A |
| 80-89 | B |
| 70-79 | C |
| 60-69 | D |
| 59-below | F |

Unpublished senior projects are protected by statutory law (The 1976 Copyright Law). Even though not required for the protection of the law, students are encouraged to register their project anyway.

Students are required to buy a syllabus (policies and procedures manual) which contains course description, expected outcomes, expectations for meetings, contract, due dates, grading policy, and

other pertinent information they need to know. In addition, the syllabus gives instruction on how the project is to be organized, the specific requirements of the manuscript and submission of the final copy. It includes sample pages as guides in preparing final reports.

The project accomplishes two things: It allows faculty to check the student's skills in written communication and give or recommend remedial help. It also gives the student a better understanding of how to read and interpret research reports, having had to prepare one themselves, thereby making the research more meaningful and applicable to real life practices.

## Sample First Term Evaluation Sheet

| | | | | Total Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Contract | | | 5 ____ |
| 2 | Introduction | | | 25 ____ |
| | a | Clear statement of problem | 5 | |
| | b | Clear background and justification of importance of problem | 5 | |
| | c | Accurate outline of problem | 5 | |
| | d | Grammar and writing Style | 5 | |
| | e | Form and Presentation | 5 | |
| 3 | Review of Literature | | | 25 ____ |
| | a | Use of current and appropriate references | 5 | |
| | b | Background information to problem | 5 | |
| | c | Supplementary literature to contribute to the topic | 5 | |
| | d | Grammar and Writing Style | 5 | |
| | e | Form and Presentation | 5 | |
| 4 | Procedure | | | 25 ____ |
| | a | Complete explanation of subjects | 5 | |
| | b | Complete explanation of research instrument | 5 | |
| | c | Detailed explanation of research procedure | 5 | |
| | d | Grammar and Writing Style | 5 | |
| | e | Form and Presentation | 5 | |
| 5 | Revised Project | | | 20 ____ |
| | a | Correction and revisions appropriate | 10 | |
| | b | All sections included in proper form | 10 | |
| | Deductions | | | ____ |
| | Student's Final Points | | | ____ |

## Sample Second Term Evaluation Sheet

| | | | Total Points |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Array and analysis of results . . . . . . . . . . . . | | 30 ____ |
| | a Clear and complete presentation of results . | 10 | |
| | b Clear and complete analysis of results . . . . | 10 | |
| | c Grammar and Writing Style . . . . . . . . . . | 4 | |
| | d Form and Presentation . . . . . . . . . . . . | 4 | |
| | e Presentation of Raw Data . . . . . . . . . . . | 2 | |
| 2 | Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations . . | | 25 ____ |
| | a Complete and Concise Summary . . . . . . . | 5 | |
| | b Clear and appropriate list of conclusions . . . | 5 | |
| | c Clear and appropriate list of recommendations | 5 | |
| | c Grammar and Writing Style . . . . . . . . . . | 5 | |
| | d Form and Presentation . . . . . . . . . . . . | 5 | |
| 3 | Abstract . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | | 10 ____ |
| | a Appropriate length . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 2 | |
| | b Comprehensive . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 5 | |
| | c Grammar and Writing Style . . . . . . . . . . | 3 | |
| 4 | Final Draft . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | | 20 ____ |
| | a Corrections and revisions appropriately made . | 10 | |
| | b Use of proper format and organization . . . . . | 10 | |
| 5 | Final Copy . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | | 15 ____ |
| | a Project is grammatically and typographically correct . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . | 10 | |
| | b All required material included . . . . . . . . . . . | 5 | |
| | Deductions | | ____ |
| | Student's Final Points | | ____ |